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1923

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# VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN CHINA

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VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

BULLETIN I

1923

VOLUME II

CHINESE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE  
ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION  
PEKING, CHINA



## VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN CHINA

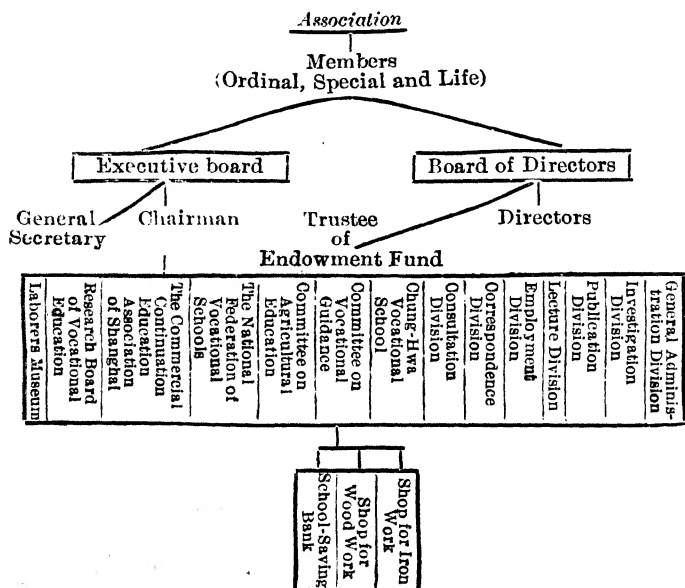
In spite of the fact that it is not more than ten years since the term "Vocational Education" has been known in this country, and although the special organization for promoting such education known as the National Association of Vocational Education of China was formed only six years ago, the movement along this line has already made tremendous strides and exerted its far reaching influence. This article invites your attention to a brief review of the most important of the activities concerning Vocational Education in China.

### 1. ORGANIZATION AND ACTIVITIES OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION OF CHINA

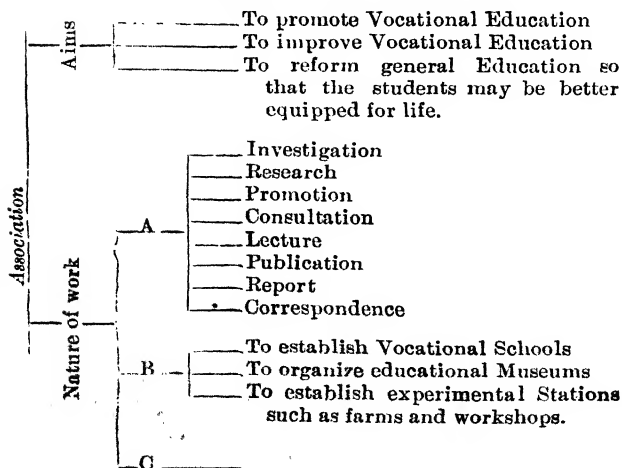
The organization of this Association, which opens a new era in her educational history, was initiated by some progressive educators in the spring of 1917 for the purpose of promoting vocational education. This movement soon stirred up public attention and support was at once received from scholars and prominent men of affairs. The Association was formally inaugurated in May of the same year, when Dr. P. W. Kuo, Hon. C. T. Wang, Mr. C. C. Nieh and others were elected as Directors with the present writer as the Chairman of the Executive Board. At present it has more than 4,000 members representing all the provinces of China as well as Europe, America and other places where Chinese are found. The following diagrams will furnish some idea of the organization and working of the Association.



## THE DIAGRAM OF THE ORGANIZATION OF THE ASSOCIATION



## THE WORKING OF THE ASSOCIATION



In general the work of the Association has been done in accordance with the above diagram. But we shall review in somewhat detail way some of the chief activities that are more worthy of note.

### *A. Research*

The research work is divided into two kinds: inquiries by means of correspondence, and inquiries through personal interview and observation. To the first kind belong the inquiries about the conditions of various vocational schools in the whole country; about the conditions of school graduates after leaving their schools, especially graduates of vocational schools; about publications, both magazine and books on vocational education, either in Chinese or in English, and the like. The statistical report of the number of vocational schools of the whole country is among the results of such research. When certain schools or companies in certain localities are to be surveyed with a certain special purpose in view, the second kind of research is available. In the last five years, one hundred forty-three cases of such research have been undertaken by this Association in different places, the results of which have been published respectively at the conclusion of each research. For instance, we sent a number of members of our staff to Malayo Archipelago for this purpose in 1917, 1919 and 1920; another research mission sent to the Eastern Three Provinces and Tsingtao; and another sent to Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, and Kiangse. Besides, our Research Division has compiled a report regarding the cost of labor and prices of various important commodities of the last ten years in Shanghai.

### *B. Lectures*

Lectures concerning the principles and significance of vocational education have been delivered to the public by this Association one hundred and forty times since its

organization, either in the Public Hall of the Association or in some other place where they were desired. In addition, lantern slides were prepared showing the kind of vocational work done in both Chinese and foreign schools.

In October, 1922, the writer made a tour in Honan and then in Peking, lecturing on vocational education in large cities along the districts of the Yangtse River. While lecturing in Honan, I was requested by the Commissioner of Education to formulate a definite, constructive plan for carrying out a comprehensive vocational education system for the whole province. This I did and it was accepted by the Commissioner. It is hoped that the plan will be soon put into execution.

### *C. Publications*

The Association publishes a monthly magazine called "Education and Vocation," in which various problems relating to vocational education are discussed. It has, however, been recently resolved<sup>1</sup> that the monthly magazine shall be reduced to a pamphlet form and confine itself to conveying important news about the advancement of vocational education, with brief but inspiring editorials, so that more force and energy can be directed to editing books on the subject. A translation of Dr. Snedden's "Problems of Vocational Education" was made and published in 1917. The Association is now ready to publish another new book in Chinese entitled "A Study of Vocational Education." The book was edited with Dr. D. S. Hill's "Introduction To Vocational Education" as a basis and some other English books on the various phases of the subject as references. It covers such important topics as adequate interpretation of vocational education, pre-vocational education, educational guidance, vocational guidance, vocational psychology, scientific research for vocational education, etc. It is being printed by the Commercial Press, Shanghai, and is expected to be out

this spring. It is not a mere translation but an adaptation to the needs of China. Books on vocational psychology, trade tests, and vocational guidance will be published in the near future. In addition, the Association will, from now on, issue a Semi-Annual Report in English so that our foreign friends may be given a real insight into the movement along vocational education in this country.

#### *D. Vocational Guidance Committee*

A Vocational Guidance Committee has been formed by the Association in coöperation with the members of the faculty of Chung Hwa Vocational School, an affiliated institution of the Association. The Committee is charged with the duty of making inquiries about the organizations of leading firms and factories in Shanghai; the requirements in connection with their employment of salesmen and other employes. When we survey generally the growing complication of occupations and the rapid development of vocational education in this country, we realize that the problem of vocational guidance is a pressing one, and such inquiries are really indispensable, if our students are not to be allowed to simply drift. They should have a definite objective to make themselves more fit for life. Inspired by some such belief as this, the members of this Committee have done their utmost to make a comprehensive study of various conditions as they exist in the different lines of industries, especially in such commercial centers as Shanghai. The public has responded generously and as a result of inquiries and having interviews with a number of leading industrialists, the Committee, with the help of the Publication Division, has compiled a book called "Talks on Experiences in Occupations" which is a good reference book for those who take great interest in the practical problems of vocations. The Committee has also made some apparatus for mental tests based upon the method introduced from Germany. They cannot

as yet be handled in an entirely satisfactory manner, and the Committee has been trying to bring them to perfection.

#### *E. Association of Commercial Continuation Education*

The organization of the Association of Commercial Continuation Education of Shanghai was initiated by this Association in coöperation with the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce, and the Shanghai College of Commerce of the National Southeastern University in 1922. Leading industrial organizations in Shanghai have been requested to take part in the work. Its purpose is to promote commercial continuation education which is especially necessary for those who have not been trained under the new system of commercial education but have only served apprenticeship according to the old way before they became merchants. It is also the aim of the Association to solve many-sided problems as to the welfare of the workers in commercial circles. It seems that not much difficulty is to be faced, as most leading industrial organizations have promised to offer their hearty support.

#### *F. Laborers' Museum*

For the purpose of enlightening laborers in Shanghai a Laborers' Museum has been built on the campus of the Chung Hwa Vocational School, in which there are various exhibition rooms for Sciences, Hygiene, and the different kinds of product of the workshops of the school. Besides, there is a spacious public lecture hall and a library. Lectures are often delivered by prominent men of affairs in the Lecture Hall. The Executive Board of the Association has been devising some kind of better scheme in order to make common laborers more accessible to the opportunities offered by the Laborers' Museum.

#### *G. An Experimental School*

The Association has established a vocational school in Shanghai, known as the Chung Hwa Vocational School, for

the purpose of conducting experimental work on vocational education and serving as a model school. The funds for its establishment and maintenance are raised by public subscriptions. A campaign for raising \$50,000 was made, when it was going to be organized. The public responded very generously and a sum of \$70,000 was realized, the original appeal being thus over-subscribed by \$20,000. The foundation of the school building was laid in July, 1917, and the school was opened in October of the same year.

Five courses are offered by the school, namely, Machine Shop Work, Carpentry, Iron Work, Commerce, and Special Course for Training of Vocational Teachers. Formerly the school also offered the courses of enameling and button making, but they have now been brought to an end. The work in the industrial courses is done on a useful or productive basis and the commercial course adopts the coöperative plan, that is to say, the students have to spend half of their time in the school and the other half in offices or shops. Besides, part time classes and evening classes have been provided for those who have entered employment and are in need of further training.

The above relates particularly to the organization and work of the National Association of Vocational Education of China which is responsible for the promotion of such education in this country. At this point it is perhaps not out of place to state some of the developments along this line since the establishment of the Association.

## 2. THE DEVELOPMENTS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN CHINA

### A. *The Position of Vocational Education in New School System*

At the session of the annual conference of the Provincial Educational Association held in Canton, November, 1921, a tentative new school system was brought up and passed,

which was later amended at the following session held in Shantung, October, 1922. On September of the same year, the Ministry of Education also held a Special Conference for discussing a new school system and thereby changed some features of the old system. Finally the Ministry drew up another tentative school system based upon the resultant result of the above two new school systems, to be submitted to the approval of the President. The new system was then adopted and promulgated by the mandate of President Li, on November 1, 1922. From the standpoint of Vocational Education, it may be said that the system has offered it a better opportunity for future progress. In this connection the following extracts from the new school system is of interest :

1. In the curriculum of the higher classes of primary schools it is permitted to add certain pre-vocational courses of study according to the social conditions of local communities.
2. In junior high schools different kinds of vocational courses are permitted to be established in order to answer the special demands of local communities.
3. The courses of senior high schools shall be Agriculture, Industry, Commerce, and Household Science. But either only one or several courses may be established according to the demands of local communities. As to the Secondary Industrial Schools established under the old system, they shall be changed into vocational schools or senior high schools of Agriculture, Industry, Commerce, etc.
4. The duration and standing of vocational schools shall be determined by the social conditions of local communities. As to the Elementary Industrial Schools established under the old system they shall also be changed into vocational schools which shall admit graduates of higher primary schools, but may admit students who have finished the courses of

lower primary schools and reached the age of admission.

5. With a view to promoting vocational education, special courses for training vocational teachers may be established in suitable schools.
6. Universities or colleges are allowed to provide special courses for those who are desirous of securing further training along certain special lines and possess sufficient standing to do so.

Since the promulgation of the above-mentioned plans, the authorities of different provinces have been proceeding to carry them out and the results will be seen in the near future.

### *B. The National Conference of Vocational Education*

The Conference was held in Chi-nang, July 3-7, 1922, and was participated by the National Federation of Vocational Schools, the National Association of Vocational Education of China, and the Division of Vocational Education of the National Association for the Advancement of Education. Seven meetings were held during the five days and the number of persons taking part in the session amounted to fifty-eight, representing forty-three organizations and eleven provinces. Nineteen important proposals were made and discussed, of which the most important two may be mentioned as follows:

1. A petition shall be submitted to the President, requesting him to appropriate special funds for the promotion of Vocational Education in China. It is suggested that from such sources as the Returned Boxers Indemnity from Russia, the Reparation Funds from Germany, and the Increased Revenue of the Customs Tariff, the amount of five million dollars should be appropriated for the purpose of carrying out the following policies: to establish Federal Board of Vocational Education; to establish



ten vocational schools in suitable places of the country; to offer subsidies to different provinces in order to increase the funds for the extension of vocational education; and finally to give financial assistance to the best private vocational schools so that the rapid development along this line will be encouraged.

2. An outline of the standardized curriculum for vocational schools together with the various names of such schools, the qualifications of admission, the number of school hours, etc., shall be drawn up, to be submitted to a Special Committee for thorough study and examination, the results of which will be presented to the government for adoption. The Committee is composed of Chung Hwa Vocational School of Shanghai, the Special Vocational Course of Teachers College, and the Girl's Vocational School of Peking, Laborers' Continuation School of Shanse, the First Commercial School, and the Second Agricultural School of Kiangsu, and other prominent organizations.

### *C. Exhibit for Products of Vocational Schools*

The first exhibit was held in Chung Hwa Vocational School, February 1-7, 1922, under the auspices of the National Federation of Vocational Schools. The results may be summarized as follows:

1. Number of Schools participating . . . .	\$ 50
2. Provinces represented by the schools . . . .	8
(Kiangsu, Chekiang, Anhwei, Chihli, Shangse, Kiangse, Fukien. and Hunan.)	
3. Number of articles . . . . .	\$ 3,039
4. Number of articles sold. . . . .	329
5. Value of articles sold . . . . .	1,200
6. Number of persons visiting . . . . .	10,468

*D. The National Association for Discussion  
of Agricultural Problems*

In view of the slow progress of agriculture and its lack of scientific knowledge, the National Association for Discussion of Agricultural problems was formed by the Chung Hwa Agricultural Association, the National Association for the Advancement of Education and the National Association of Vocational Education of China in coöperation with the National Federation of Vocational Schools. The first conference of this Association was held in Tsinan, Shantung, July, 1922. The problems discussed cover three parts:

1. Concerning agricultural education;
2. Concerning experimental work of agriculture;
3. Concerning administration of agricultural education.

In this connection it is to be noticed that the first part includes the suggested Plan of Reorganization of Agricultural Education for the whole country which deals with the elaborate schemes of carrying out Higher Agricultural Education, Secondary Agricultural Education and Elementary Agricultural Education. Each kind was carefully considered and amended by specialists at the session. Now the Executive Committee of the Association has been charged with the duty of propagating the plan and of devising means to put it in force.

Besides the comprehensive plan for the promotion of agricultural education of the whole country, an exhibition of agricultural production was held in the meantime under the auspices of the Association, which was accorded with favorable reception.

The number of representatives participating in the first conference amounted to one hundred and seventy-four and it seems without doubt that such enthusiasm, together with the achievements which have been so far obtained, will certainly lead to a much more promising future for agricultural progress in China.

*E. The Remarkable Increase of Vocational Schools*

The year 1922, the fifth year of the National Vocational Education Association's work in China, was marked by the noticeable increase of vocational schools. According to the fourth statistical report of education issued by the Ministry of Education, the number of vocational school was 531 in 1916; whereas in the first statistical report prepared by the Association we find that the number reaches 719 in 1921. But our second statistical report gives a still greater figure for last year, amounting to 1553.

TABLE SHOWING THE INCREASING NUMBER OF VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS IN LAST TWO YEARS

<i>Kinds of Schools</i>	<i>Number of Vocational Schools</i>		
	1916	1921	1922
Secondary Agricultural Schools	56	74	82
Elementary       "       "	269	311	345
Secondary Industrial       "	30	34	38
Elementary       "       "	38	62	82
Secondary Commercial       "	31	35	45
Elementary       "       "	80	107	129
Vocational Schools (for men)	3	34	51
"       "       ( , , girls)	21	44	158
"       Continuation Schools		11	250
Special Courses for Training Vocational Teachers	3	2	5
Vocational Schools of Philanthropic Nature		6	19
Total	531	719	1353

This shows the number of schools in 1922 is an increase of about 170% over that of 1916, and about 86% over that of 1921. While the figures in our statistics may not so exactly correspond to the actual situation as it is expected, owing to some reason, such as poor means of communication and less interest of the public in the prompt response of inquiries made, it is, nevertheless, sufficient to furnish us with some idea of the steady increase in the number of vocational schools in China, and thereby creates a new hope in the educational world that from now on vocational education could be accorded a more important place in the life of the nation.



**MOVEMENT FOR EDUCATING  
ILLITERATES IN CHINA**

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**BULLETIN 2**

**1923**

**VOLUME II**

**CHINESE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE  
ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION  
PEKING, CHINA**



## PREFACE

Two years ago the author wrote an article, "Adult Education in China," which was published by the World Association for Adult Education of London. This was revised and incorporated in his book, "Tendencies toward a Democratic System of Education in China," published last year by the Commercial Press at Shanghai. Since that publication some new experiments have been made in educating illiterate adults, and more data are available. He has made another attempt of revising his old writing and renamed his study, as the nature of adult education in China is a little different from that in other countries and is practically a synonym of education for illiterates. The original Chinese term, Tung Su Chiao Yü 通俗教育 or Shê Hui Chiao Yü 社會教育 has no English equivalent. It means education for those who have not had chance to receive systematic school education, be they old or young.

March, 1923.

C. H. C.





## MOVEMENT FOR EDUCATING ILLITERATES IN CHINA

### I. SIGNIFICANCE AND SCOPE

*Illiteracy Among the Masses.*—In providing man power, China is proud of having a population of 400,900,000, but in popularizing education, she is greatly handicapped by this very magnitude. The old formal education in China did not reach the masses of the people, although they learned unconsciously to respect Confucius' principles and to observe traditions and customs. When modern education was first introduced into China in the latter part of the Manchu dynasty, it still reached only a selected few. The government did not begin to pay proper attention to educating the mass of illiterates, until the Republic was established. For it was only since then that China realized the importance of educating the members of the nation, who are the active citizens of the Republic.

For these illiterates the education which is needed is chiefly instruction in fundamentals—fundamental tools for further acquiring knowledge and for daily use and fundamental principles of a democratic form of government. By gaining control of the fundamental tools, they cannot only write and read to increase their knowledge, but also share with others the common understanding, the basis for common action and attitude, which is essential to a democracy. By knowing fundamental principles of government, they can be intelligent in expressing their voice in national affairs, thus contributing their share in the upbuilding of the nation.

Through the agencies of such instruction, they may furthermore acquire a limited but essential amount of general and special knowledge, such as personal and public hygiene, progress of the nation and the world, and some simple method of improving their business and farming.

*Scope to Be Treated.*—The agencies of such instruction, though they came into existence in China only in the past few years, are numerous. We shall consider only those which have a nation-wide influence. These institutions are largely under the control of the educational authority of the central, provincial, and local governments. Other agencies of considerable importance are the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, which conducts extension work for educating the rural folk, and semiofficial organizations in different provinces for promoting popular education. A few private agencies are conducting work national in scope, which will be treated under different headings according to the nature of the work. At the end of the booklet, a description of the work in this phase of education in one of the more progressive provinces will be given. ↗

## II. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

Little can be said about the historical development of education for illiterates in China, for as a movement it is too recent. Under the Manchu dynasty, emperors' edicts were explained to the people by officials, usually in the evenings, at street corners or at any gathering. The purpose was to arouse the people's loyalty. When modern education was introduced, these lectures continued, and in some localities definite places and dates were assigned for lecturing, but their nature was not changed.

*Before the Revolution of 1911.*—In 1908, when a constitutional form of government was promised by an imperial decree, a special educational program was prepared by the Ministry of Education in which provision was made for institutions for educating the adults, such as "language

made easy" schools, half-day schools, lecture halls, etc. But the program was never faithfully carried out. The only influential institution was the lecture hall, which was nothing more than a place to instill into the minds of the people loyalty to the dynasty.

*After the Revolution.*—When the Ministry of Education of the Republican Government was organized in 1912, it announced a new educational policy, in which great emphasis was laid on the importance of giving the right kind of lectures to the people. The provincial governments were asked to draw up provisional standards of procedure, to select and compile material to be embodied in the lectures, and to put the scheme into practice through local officials and enthusiasts for the cause. Public funds were to be appropriated for the purpose. Among the topics suggested by the ministry for lectures were the following: The achievement of the revolution, the duties and privileges of republican citizenship, the importance of promoting the economic and industrial welfare of the country, and especially the importance of emphasizing public virtue. Later, the ministry requested the provincial and local governments to establish public libraries, institutes for the training of lecturers and schools for adults, and to organize associations for promoting popular education. It also required the material for lectures to be sent to the ministry for approval. The encouragement of the ministry gave an impetus to this phase of education and led to the opening of institutions which will be described later.

The interest in adult education in China was further stimulated by the recent national movement.\* Everywhere

\* See "The Chinese National Movement" in *Millard's Review*, June 21, 1919 (published at Shanghai), and two articles by Professor John Dewey in the *New Republic*, August 6, 1919, and February 25, 1920.

voluntary organizations were formed for discussion and study of current events and common knowledge. Lectures were given by college and high school students, and were well attended. A great number of periodicals in popular dialects appeared.

While what has been accomplished amounts as yet to little, education for illiterates has become an indispensable part of the public educational system in China and public interest in it is growing. The following survey is rather an account of the beginning of such education in China than that of its full development, which will ultimately be realized later.

### III. PUBLIC LECTURES

Lecturing as a means of educating the public is especially important in China as she has a great number of adults who cannot read and write, and have not time, or are too old, to attend schools. Although mere lecturing has little result, yet as a means of educating illiterates, it will continue to exist in China for a considerable time to come.

Two kinds of institutions have been established by the Chinese government for giving public lectures. One is the lecture hall, and the other the circulating lecture group. Both of them have been opened throughout the country.\*

*Lecture Halls.*—The latest report\* of the Ministry of Education shows the following number of lecture halls in different parts of China:

\**A Brief Report of the Administration of the Ministry of Education* (Chiao Yu Hsing Chên Chi Yao), 1912-1915 and 1915-1919.

<i>Province or Special District</i>	<i>Number of Lecture Halls</i>	<i>Number of Lectures per Week</i>
Peking . . . . .	12	(3 hours a day)
Kingchao . . . . .	5	3
Chihli . . . . .	100	3
Fengtieu . . . . .	150	3
Kirin . . . . .	20	2
Heilungkiang . . . . .	13	2
Shantung . . . . .	655	3
Honan . . . . .	51	3
Shansi . . . . .	109	3
Kiangsu . . . . .	69	3
Anhwei . . . . .	21	3
Kiangsi . . . . .	60	3
Fukien . . . . .	23	3
Chekiang . . . . .	168	3
Hupei . . . . .	239	4
Hunan . . . . .	18	3
Shensi . . . . .	18	2
Kansu . . . . .	88	2
Sinkiang . . . . .	2	1
Szechwan . . . . .	37	3
Kwangtung . . . . .	52	3
Kwangsi . . . . .	177	2
Yunnan . . . . .	47	2
Kweichow . . . . .	2	1
Johoh . . . . .	3	1
TOTAL . . . . .	2,139	

*Lecture Groups.*—The advantage of the lecture group system over that of the lecture hall is that the former can give lectures in any place and reach more people, and lectures can be repeated several times. The same group can travel from village to village, town to town, or from one market to another in the same locality. They can give lectures in

temples, in fair grounds, in schools, in the open air, or at any gathering. According to the report of the Ministry of Education, the statistics of such lectures in 1915 are as follows:

<i>Province or Special District</i>	<i>Number of Places Where Lectures Were Given</i>	<i>Number of Lectures per Week</i>
		(3 hours a day)
Peking . . . .	1	
Chihli. . . . .	90	3
Fengtien . . . .	6	3
Kirin . . . . .	3	2
Heilungkiang . .	4	1
Shantung . . . .	45	3
Honan . . . . .	22	3
Shansi . . . . .	49	3
Kiangsu . . . . .	59	3
Kiangsi . . . . .	19	3
Fukien . . . . .	17	2
Chekiang. . . . .	52	3
Hupei . . . . .	202	3
Hunan . . . . .	24	2
Shensi . . . . .	16	2
Kansu . . . . .	24	1
Szechwan . . . .	44	3
Kwangtung . . . .	16	3
Kwangsi . . . . .	36	2
Yünnan . . . . .	8	2
Johoh. . . . .	1	2
TOTAL . . . . .	738	

One of the best lecture groups was organized in Kiangsu province in 1916.\* The group consisted of twenty-two lecturers, who were trained by well-known lecturers and educationists. With the exception of two lecturers who

\* *Educational Condition in Kiangsu During Last Five Years. 1916.*

remained in the headquarters at the capital of the province, the group was divided into ten sections, with two lecturers in each section. They traveled throughout the sixty districts of the whole province, and gave lectures and illustrations and demonstrations at 350 different places to a total audience of 166,319 persons.

*Lectures by College Students.*—Ever since the beginning of the recent national movement, college students have come out and given lectures to people at street corners or at any gatherings on all kinds of topics from international relationships to personal hygiene. During the academic year they address the people in the localities of their institutions, and during the summer vacation they disperse to villages and towns and give lectures whenever there is a chance. The statistics of these lectures, however, are not known.

*Lectures by Young Men's Christian Association.*—Most of the Y.M.C.A.'s in China have lecture departments. But the only series of lectures given by the Y.M.C.A. which had a nationwide influence was that by Dr. David Yiu. A graduate of Harvard University in education, and now the General Secretary of the National Y.M.C.A., he was the head of the Lecture Department of that institution in 1915 and 1916. It was then that he delivered a series of most popular and illuminating lectures on different subjects, and laid special emphasis on education. He traveled throughout the Yangtze Valley and also some of the southern provinces. With the aid of specially constructed equipment and his eloquence he everywhere attracted big audiences.

*The Nature of Lectures.*—Brief mention has been made of what the nature of lectures should be as suggested by the Ministry of Education in 1912. In 1915, further details regarding it were given by the Ministry as follows:\*

“There shall be two kinds of lectures. The ordinary lectures shall be for the following purposes :

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\**Educational Laws and Regulations (Chiao Yu Fa Kwei)*, p. 470 ff.



1. Instilling patriotism.
2. Encouraging a law-abiding spirit.
3. Emphasising public virtue.
4. Spreading common knowledge.
5. Instilling æsthetic appreciation.
6. Encouraging industry.
7. Improving physical culture, and
8. Emphasising public hygiene.

"Special lectures shall be given when special events happen, such as the anniversary of the Republic, the Flood, epidemic of some contagious disease, etc." †

*The Qualifications of Lecturers.*—According to regulations

†To illustrate these principles, a lecture translated from *The Selected Lectures* published by the Popular Educational Association at Peking is given in part as follows:

#### "THE NATIONAL FLAG

"Countrymen, do you see the flag which hangs before every public office? This is our national flag. There are different kinds of flags in different countries. There are flags with figures of animals and other objects, and there are flags of different colors. But every independent nation has a national flag, and every national flag has a meaning.

"Our national flag has five colors: red, yellow, blue, white, and black; each represents one part of our country: the China Proper, Manchuria, Mongolia, the Chinese Turkestan, and Tibet. It has an ethical meaning. The five colors represent five virtues: benevolence, righteousness, harmony, wisdom and honesty.

"The national flag is to represent the nation; when you see a flag, you know to which nation, a locality, a building, or a ship belongs. In addition to the national flag, there are flags for the army, for the navy, and for merchant ships and firms to show what they are and to whom they belong.

"The national flag to a nation is just as a signboard to a store. The signboard of a store is very important (to the Chinese mind at least). If you destroy it, that store will bring suit against you. If you do not pay respect to a national flag, it means that you do not respect that nation. Remember, countrymen, the Opium War was begun by not paying respect to the flag of Great Britain, and the result was that China was forced to open five ports for foreign trade.

"So we must not only pay respect to our national flag, but also to flags of other nations."

issued by the Ministry, the following are qualified to be public lecturers:

1. Graduates of an institute for training lecturers.
2. Persons with at least one year's experience in lecturing.
3. Elementary school teachers or normal school graduates.
4. Officials of educational organizations or lecture bureaus; or
5. Well-known local leaders.

*The Training of Lecturers.*—In 1916 the Ministry of Education ordered provincial and local governments to open institutes for the training of lecturers. Such institutes admit secondary school graduates, elementary school teachers, or people with corresponding education. The subjects of study include sociology, psychology, principles of adult education, public speaking, current events, government, economics, and practice lecturing, the course lasting from three months to one year. The number of hours per week may vary from twelve to thirty according to the length of the course.

The Ministry established such an institute at Peking in 1915; the Provincial Educational Association of Kiangsu established another in 1916. No record as to the number of such institutes existing in China at present is available.

#### IV. SCHOOLS FOR ILLITERATES

While lectures and library facilities are convenient for those who have leisure hours, they impose no obligations to study. There is no definite and systematic plan to be followed by those who attend, and they come and go as they please. In these respects lectures and libraries have not the advantages that the school possesses; namely, definite hours, definite plans, and regular attendance.

China now has four kinds of schools for illiterates which are under government control: the public "continuation" school, the half-day school, the "language-made-easy" school, and the open-air school.

## 10 MOVEMENT FOR EDUCATING ILLITERATES IN CHINA

*Public Continuation Schools.\**—The public “continuation” school is for educating those who are above sixteen years of age but have not had any school education. The subjects taught are Chinese, ethics, arithmetic, and general lectures on citizenship, hygiene, common knowledge, etc. The students attend classes eighteen hours a week for one year. The number of public continuation schools in 1915 was reported as follows:

<i>Province or Special District</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>	<i>Number of Classes in Each School</i>	<i>Average Number of Students in Each Class</i>
Peking . . .	3	3	—
Chihli. . .	1	2	30
Fengtien . .	1	2	30
Heilungkiang	1	1	20
Honan . . .	1	2	30
Shansi. . .	5	2	30
Kiangsu . .	9	3	40
Kiangsi . .	2	2	30
Chekiang. .	5	3	40
Hupei . . .	2	3	40
Szechwan	2	2	40
Kwangtung .	1	3	30
Kwangsi . .	45	1	20
Yünnan . .	1	1	30
TOTAL .	79	131	

A survey of schools for educating illiterates has recently been made in Peking.† It mentions that five continuations are maintained by the Metropolitan Bureau of Education, two are maintained in connection with public lecture halls,

\*The continuation school in China is different in nature from that in the United States or in England. It does not “continue” the education received in the elementary school, but it teaches those who have not received any education. It is called “Pu Hsi Hsueh Hsiao” in Chinese, or “Make-up” school.

†Pei Chin Pin Min Chiao Yü Chih Chuang Huang, published by Peking Y. M. C. A.

and six are maintained by the Municipal Council, making a total number of thirteen in 1922 against three in 1915.

*Half-Day Schools.*—The half-day schools are organized in the same way as the public "continuation" schools, except that they are for younger people (usually below sixteen), and the length of course is three years.

According to the latest statistics published in the *New Education* magazine, the number of such schools in 1918 was as follows:—\*

	<i>No. of Schools</i>	<i>No. of Pupils</i>
Peking† . . . .	51	3,994
Kingchao . . . .	132	942
Chihli . . . . .	745	13,025
Fengtien . . . .	15	559
Kirin . . . . .	7	230
Shantung . . . .	73	2,648
Honan . . . . .	52	1,661
Shansi . . . . .	27	410
Kiangsu . . . . .	9	300
Anhwei . . . . .	19	408
Kiangsi . . . . .	13	417
Fukien . . . . .	28	1,115
Chekiang . . . .	84	2,777
Hupei . . . . .	52	1,676
Hunan . . . . .	3	141
Shensi . . . . .	39	152
Kansu . . . . .	7	904
Sinkiang . . . .	36	1,411
Szechwan . . . .	161	5,024
Kwangtung . . . .	15	432
Kwangsi . . . . .	31	733
Kweichow . . . .	11	264
Jehoh . . . . .	2	85
<b>TOTAL . . . . .</b>	<b>1,614</b>	<b>39,318</b>

\* The New Education, Vol. V, Nos. 1 and 2.

† Pei Chün Pin Min Chiao Yü Chih Chuang Huang, Published by Peking Y.M.C.A

*"Language-made-Easy" Schools.* \* — The "language-made-easy" school also educates adults who have not had any school training. The main object of this kind of school is to teach simple Chinese. The course usually lasts two years, with twelve hours' work a week. For convenience the class may meet in the morning, in the afternoon, or in the evening. Some of the schools are open three sessions a day for different classes of people, and many of them are teaching the new phonetic script. The number of "language-made-easy" schools in the whole country in 1915 was as follows:

<i>Province or Special District</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>	<i>Number of Classes in Each School</i>	<i>Average Number of Students in Each Class</i>
Kingchao . . .	248	2	40
Chihli. . . .	1,511	2	40
Fengtien. . .	5	3	30
Kirin . . . .	86	2	80
Heilungkiang .	4	1	20
Shantung . .	73	3	30
Honan . . . .	932	2	30
Shansi . . . .	260	2	20
Kiangsu . . .	33	3	40
Anhwei . . . .	69	2	20
Kiangsi . . . .	108	2	30
Fukien . . . .	13	3	30
Chekiang . . .	84	3	40
Hupeh . . . .	165	3	40
Hunan . . . .	8	2	30
Shensi . . . .	14	2	30
Kansu . . . .	230	1	20
Sinkiang. . . .	20	1	20
Szechwan . . .	160	2	30
Kwangtung. . .	54	3	40
Kwangsi. . . .	224	2	20
Yunnan . . . .	28	3	30
Kweichow . . .	6	2	20
Jehol . . . .	264	1	20
<b>TOTAL . . .</b>	<b>4,599</b>	<b>9,135</b>	

\* Chien I Shih Tzu Hsueh Hsiao.

*Open-air Schools.*—The open-air school teaches roughly the same subjects as the foregoing two institutions. The teachers are usually elementary school teachers and public lecturers. There are two sessions a week, each lasting two hours. It is a new kind of institution in China, and in 1915 there were only six such schools in Peking. Since then a number of provinces have established open-air schools, but statistics are not available, except those of Shansi, which will be mentioned later. The number of such schools in Peking was increased to twenty-three in 1919.\*

*Schools Maintained by Students.*—Since the national movement, students of colleges and secondary schools have maintained schools for illiterates all over the nation. No statistics however are available except those in Peking.

	<i>No. of Schools</i>	<i>No. of Pupils</i>
Maintained by students of Peking		
National University . . . . .	2	503
Chung Kuo University . . . . .	1	222
Ming Kuo University . . . . .	1	113
Pin Ming University . . . . .	1	42
Yen Ching University . . . . .	1	50
Peking Teachers' College for Women	1	70
Peking Teachers' College . . . . .	2	452
Law College . . . . .	1	120
Engineering College . . . . .	1	170
Medical College . . . . .	1	157
Army Medical School . . . . .	1	19
First Middle School . . . . .	1	13
Peking Normal School . . . . .	1	214
Pei Hua Girls' School . . . . .	1	51
Chung Te Middle School . . . . .	2	30
Tsing Hua College . . . . .	1	100
Total . . . . .	19	2,326

\*From a private correspondence.

*Work of Mr. T. E. Tong.\**—One of the difficulties in conducting adult classes is the selection of the right kind of textbooks. The Commercial Press at Shanghai has published a number of such books. A unique set of textbooks for instructing adult illiterates has been edited and published by Mr. T. E. Tong, Vice President of the Shanghai Baptist College—unique by the fact that only six hundred characters are used. These characters are the most common ones, and adequate for the expression of ordinary ideas. Textbooks in the following subjects have been published: hygiene, ethics, geography, letter writing, and citizenship. By using the same six hundred characters Mr. Tong has also published books on current events, the nursery, the education of children, and agricultural subjects, and a monthly magazine containing important news and topics of common knowledge. Thus by acquiring a knowledge of these six hundred characters one can read and write and learn common subjects. From 1913 to 1918 nearly four hundred schools using these books for instruction had been opened by private persons or organizations throughout the country with an attendance of more than four thousand. It is interesting to note that many of the pupils are forty years of age or over.

*Work of Mr. James Yen.†*—Mr. James Yen, a graduate of Yale, was one of the field secretaries sent by the International Committee of the Y.M.C.A. of New York City to work among Chinese laborers in France during the War. When he was there he edited a weekly paper in simple language for the laborers, and a book containing simple but often-used characters for their reading course. Since his return to China he has been connected with the National Y.M.C.A. at Shanghai. From the knowledge derived from his experience in France he selected 1,000 fundamental characters, and by

\*See the *Report of the Shanghai Baptist College on Adult Schools*, 1919.

†*The New Education* Vol. V No. 5, Dec. 1922.

arranging such characters, he wrote three simple readers for illiterates. An experiment was conducted in Changsha, the capital of the Hunan province, using these readers as texts to teach illiterates an hour and a half a day for four months. In coöperation with provincial authorities, gentries, students, and others, he secured some 1,200 students, ranging from six to forty-one years of age, but mostly between ten and sixteen years old. At the end of four months some 900 students graduated. It is expected that similar experiments will be conducted in other cities and more books will be written along this line.

## V. OTHER AGENCIES

Among other agencies for educating the great mass of people, public libraries are, perhaps, the most important. However, as our Association has published a booklet on "The Library Movement in China," we shall not discuss them here. Two other agencies are becoming national institutions, namely, public newspaper reading rooms and public museums.

*Public Newspaper Reading Rooms.*—The newspaper is the organ of public opinion—one of the most important organs in a republic. In order to provide comfortable places for people to read different kinds of newspapers, public newspaper reading rooms have been opened in various parts of China. In 1919 the number of such newspaper reading rooms was as follows :

Peking . . . . .	9	Chekiang . . . . .	170
Kingchao . . . . .	10	Hupch . . . . .	103
Chihli . . . . .	124	Hunan . . . . .	39
Fengtien . . . . .	45	Shensi . . . . .	15
Kirin . . . . .	17	Kansu . . . . .	91
Heilungkiang . . . . .	5	Sinkiang . . . . .	5
Shantung . . . . .	113	Szechwan . . . . .	156
Shansi . . . . .	77	Kwangtung . . . . .	149
Honan . . . . .	139	Kwangsi . . . . .	54
Kiangsu . . . . .	187	Yunnan . . . . .	99
Kiangsi . . . . .	106	Kweichow . . . . .	16
Anhwei . . . . .	30	Jehol . . . . .	6
Fukien . . . . .	52		—
		TOTAL . . . . .	1,817



The newspaper reading room is a peculiar institution in China. It only corresponds to the periodical room in public libraries in other countries, but it exists independently. Its development might be attributed to the practice of providing newspapers to customers in tea-houses, and now the government has established separate places for people to read newspapers. For the time being, when libraries are not sufficient in number, this kind of institution is very serviceable. When more libraries are opened, they can be incorporated as a part of the library.

*Public Museums.*—The museum is another recognised institution for educating the public, but it takes time and money to establish them. In 1915 there were only a few of them in China, the number being as follows :

Peking . . . . 1	Kiangsu . . . . . 2
Kiangchao . . . . 1	Hupei . . . . . 1
Shantung . . . . 1	Kwangtung . . . . . 1
Shansi . . . . . 1	Yunnan . . . . . 1
<hr/>	
TOTAL . . . . . 9	

The museum at Peking is an excellent one. It has a fine collection of antiques and paintings of different dynasties. They were formerly the property of the imperial family. After the establishment of the Republic they were put in the museum which is open to the public.

The Museum of Natural History of New York City is making an expedition to Northwestern China for the collection of specimens of certain animals, and will help China to build up a museum of natural history at Peking. Such an institution is undoubtedly needed.

A private museum has been established by an Englishman at Tsinan, Shantung. It has different models showing local geographical features; charts and pictures showing important institutions and industries in China as well as in the world; specimens of plants and animals; charts showing products of

different nations; models of ancient and modern costumes, dwellings, and utensils; and models relating to medical studies. Some 330,000 persons visit the museum each year.

*The Yangtzepoo Social Center.*—The Yangtzepoo Social Center is a new experiment which is different from any of the undertakings we have mentioned so far but which is a notable experiment worthy of our attention. The Center was first organized by the Department of Sociology of the Shanghai Baptist College at Shanghai in 1918, in coöperation with some twenty institutions, largely industrial establishments. It is located at the heart of one of the most important industrial districts of the metropolitan city. Facilities for schooling, recreation, care of accidents, etc., are strikingly lacking. The Center is endeavoring to meet these various needs, partially, at least. Its work is divided into social, educational, and medical lines.

The Social Department provides a reading room, two playgrounds, and an employment bureau, and has arranged other activities, such as Sunday schools, social meetings, and women's clubs. In the year 1921 to 1922, attendance at the reading room averaged 2,044 monthly, while that at the playgrounds averaged about 1,000 weekly. The employment bureau rendered service to one hundred and forty-one persons. The Educational Department has maintained a continuation school, a boys' school, and a girls' school. In the year mentioned the enrollment in the first was 370, that in the second, 128, and that in the third, 38. A little tuition is charged, but students are willing to pay because courses are adapted to their needs. In addition to these schools there is a Vacation Bible School which has some three hundred students, and which is operated during the summer vacation. The Medical Department provides an industrial hospital and dispensary. It took care of some four hundred patients and gave a total of 7,649 treatments during the year of 1921-1922.

The Center is, probably, pioneer in the line of social work in China. Undoubtedly such kind of work is much needed in any industrial district in China. While a few modern factories have provided night schools, schools for children of their workers, hospitals, playgrounds, etc., most of them have not succeeded in their undertakings because of lack of trained workers, funds, etc. In this connection we may mention the work of the Commercial Press at Shanghai which is up-to-date in every respect, which is considered as a model for its treatment of workers, the success of which is largely due to the fact that the men in charge of the Press have had training along educational lines. For other factories whose managers are industrial specialists, perhaps the best plan is to coöperate with some educational institution which is near by and which has trained persons for doing such work.

#### VI. ORGANIZATIONS FOR PROMOTING MASS EDUCATION

There are a number of organizations, besides the Ministry of Education and provincial and local bureaus of education which are promoting education for illiterates.

*The Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce.*—The Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce is carrying on extension work to educate the public, especially the farmers, by publishing and distributing pamphlets and bulletins, and by giving lectures and demonstrations. The experimental stations under the control of the Ministry are doing similar work.

In 1919 the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce inaugurated a method of work by despatching a demonstration train from the capital to different places along the Peking-Hankow Railway, which is one of the main trunk lines connecting the capital and the big twin city of Wuhan and passing the northern great plain in China. On the train there was an exhibition of the best agricultural products of the experimental station at Peking, of modern farm machinery and equipment, and illustrations. The train stopped

at thirty-five different places on the way, demonstrations and lectures were given to the public, farmers, and students. More than 12,000 persons came to attend the lectures and to see the demonstrations, and about 10,000 pamphlets were distributed.

*Popular Educational Associations.*—Organisations for promoting mass education, known as “popular educational associations,” have been established throughout China. In 1915, their number was as follows :

Peking . . . . .	1	Fukien . . . . .	5
Kingchao . . . . .	1	Chekiang . . . . .	8
Chihli . . . . .	3	Hupei . . . . .	19
Fengtien . . . . .	7	Hunan . . . . .	4
Kirin . . . . .	3	Shensi . . . . .	8
Heilungkiang . . . . .	2	Kansu . . . . .	9
Shantung . . . . .	19	Sinkiang . . . . .	2
Honan . . . . .	24	Szechwan . . . . .	25
Shansi . . . . .	8	Kwangtung . . . . .	4
Kiangsu . . . . .	12	Kwangsi . . . . .	2
Anhui . . . . .	2	Yunnan . . . . .	20
Kiangsi . . . . .	10	Kweichow . . . . .	2
		Total . . . . .	200

The most influential popular educational association in the country is that at Peking. It has three divisions—fiction, drama, and lectures. Each division is trying its utmost to improve adult education within the jurisdiction assigned to it. From 1915 to 1919\* the fiction division examined more than 800 works. The drama division examined about thirty dramas, and composed and published about the same number, as well as about ten songs. The lecture division published two volumes of selected lectures, examined some fifty books on adult education and sixty

\* See *Annual Reports of the Association*.

different series of pictures and illustrations, published twelve volumes of material relating to current events and a number of books on miscellaneous topics, opened a model lecture hall at Peking, and started a nation-wide survey of social customs. The association has published a list with reviews of the works examined, and has petitioned the Ministry of Education to prohibit the publication of some vicious novels and dramas. The Ministry has approved their scheme and thus safeguarded the public.

## VII. EDUCATING ILLITERATES IN SHANSI

X Shansi is a province of 166,275 square miles, with a population of about 11,447,257, according to a census taken by the provincial government in 1920.\* The province has 108 districts, each of which is divided into from three to six sub-districts, which are further divided into villages and lü. Every lü has a head, every village has a leader with one or two assistants, and every district has a district magistrate. In order to ensure the progress of education in general, and of education for illiterates in particular, all district magistrates village leaders, and lü heads must be graduates of special institutes. Besides, every district has a school inspector and an official in charge of adult education. It has also an information office and a publication bureau. With such machinery a programme of mass education for the province has been worked out.

*Institutions for Educating Illiterates in Shansi.*†—In 1918 there was at least one lecture hall, one library, and one newspaper reading room in each district. In the summer every school house is used for lecturing, and every student when spending vacation at home is responsible for lecturing to his neighbors.

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\* *Statistics and Reports of Education in Shansi*, 1919.

† *The Census of Population in Shansi*, 1920.

In that year there were also seventy-four half-day schools, thirty-nine schools for teaching language, nineteen open-air schools, and seventy-four winter schools in the province. Open-air schools are only conducted in the summer, and the winter schools in the winter and spring when people in the agricultural districts are not so busy with their work.

In the next year,\* the increase of such schools was remarkable: half-day schools, 344; schools for teaching language, 3,634; open-air schools, 46; winter schools, 1,434; schools for poor children, 244; and continuation school 2,633.

No mention was made about lecture halls, etc.

*Publications.*—From 1918 to 1919 the provincial government published and distributed more than 6,000,000 volumes of books and pamphlets for educating the public.† Among them the most influential one is *What a Citizen Ought to Know*, of which more than 2,700,000 copies were distributed. By order of the governor those who were able were to read it, and were urged to explain it to those who were illiterate.

*What a Citizen Ought to Know.*—Since the book *What a Citizen Ought to Know* has such a great influence, it is worth while to examine just what it is. It contains the following chapters:

I. Civic virtues, such as faithfulness, progressiveness, patriotism, etc.

II. Education, containing topics on compulsory education, importance of reading, attending lectures, and understanding laws, etc.

III. Industries, such as tree-planting, cotton-planting, sugar-making, textile manufactures, commerce, sericulture, etc.

IV. The family, relating to topics on home education, importance of thrift, harmfulness of early marriage, etc.

\* *Statistics and Reports of Education in Shansi*, 1918.

† *Statistics and Report of Auxiliary Education of Shansi*, 1919.

V. The society, concerning topics on importance of public hygiene, freedom of worship, importance of *esprit de corps*, etc.

VI. Nationality, containing topics on the national flag, the national anthem, reverence of law, etc., and

VII. The world, relating to topics on races and nations, nature of treaties, lessons from the Great War, etc., and geography of the world, with map.

*Compulsory Law for Adult Education in Shansi.*—The compulsory law for adult education was passed and became effective, beginning August, 1919. All adults who are under twenty-five and have had no school education must attend a "continuation" school for two years. The subjects taught are Chinese, arithmetic, and citizenship. The number of hours per week may vary from six in the summer to twelve in the winter. No tuition fees are charged, and books are given free. The schools are in session for not less than nine months a year.

# LIBRARY MOVEMENT IN CHINA

T. C. TAI, B.L.S.

LIBRARIAN OF TSING HUA COLLEGE

BULLETIN 3

1923

VOLUME II

CHINESE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE  
ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION  
PEKING, CHINA





## **LIBRARY MOVEMENT IN CHINA**

### **INTRODUCTION**

Since the Revolution of 1911, China has undergone a movement of change in intellectual problems as well as in politics. The people have not only tried hard to shake off the yoke of despotism, but also fully determined to free themselves from the oppression of intellectual bondage. To-day at the bookstalls the translated works of Karl Marx, Kropotkin, Russell, Einstein and others are demanded like hot cakes, while the critical essays on Chinese classics are even welcomed by the scholars of the old type. The intellectual class has seen the failures of numerous reforms and come to the conclusion that the Chinese process of thought must be revolutionized.

Our present day means of diffusing the new knowledge to the general masses are to introduce the use of a Chinese phonetic alphabet, and to publish books and periodicals in Peh Hua or colloquial language. In order to supply the Chinese intellect with fresh, vital energy, famous philosophers like Dewey, Russell and Driesch have been and are still touring China, giving lectures in most educational centers. Among institutions whose existence depends upon their ability to meet the public demand, the library is now face to face with rapidly changing conditions.

### **ATTITUDE OF GOVERNMENT**

China even to-day is full of places for storing books. Although scholars continue to be interested in the editions of bygone dynasties, like the Sung, or the Yuan or the Ming, and many libraries only know how to collect the valuable incunabula, yet the tendency is daily growing stronger

in favor of converting the book vault, jealously guarded by thick doors and heavy locks, into a living and attractive library. And during the last decade the new library movement has taken great strides.

On April 11, 1915, the Ministry of Education issued an order embodying eleven regulations which emphasize promotion, organization and administration of libraries throughout the different provinces of the country.

They are translated as follows:

1. Every province and special district shall establish public libraries for the use of the people. When the inhabitants of a city call for a library, let it be established without unnecessary delay.
2. Any school, public or private, or any society or individual person may establish a library by following the library regulations promulgated by the Ministry of Education.
3. Libraries maintained by cities and special districts shall be called public libraries. Libraries maintained by schools and societies shall be called respectively school libraries and society libraries, while libraries maintained by individuals shall be called private libraries.
4. (a) The public library shall at the time of establishment submit to the Ministry of Education through the district officer or the educational commissioner the following data:
  1. Name.
  2. Location.
  3. Expenditure.
  4. Number of volumes.
  5. Plan of the building.
  6. Regulations.
  7. The date of opening.
- (b) Private libraries shall register at the district officer with the same seven data as in (a).

- (c) School and society libraries shall report those data through the authorities of the school or the society to the district officer or the educational commissioner.

Discontinuation of the operation of any library, or any change of name, etc., shall be reported to the district officer or educational commissioner.

5. Every library is required to have a librarian and also assistants. The qualifications of the librarian and the assistants shall at the time of their assumption of duties be reported to the Ministry of Education through the district officer.
6. The salaries and privileges of the librarian and assistants of any public library shall follow the regulations for the educational officers of that district.
7. Every public library is required to submit to the district officer an annual report which shall be published in the general annual educational report of that province.
8. The budget of a public library shall at the beginning of the fiscal year be submitted for approval to the Ministry of Education through the district officer or the educational commissioner.

The budget of a school library must be incorporated in the school budget.

9. Libraries may collect a nominal assessment from the readers.
10. When an individual person establishes or donates a library, the district officer shall report the matter to the Ministry of Education, so that the donor shall be duly rewarded according to the regulations governing "Establishment and Donation of Schools."
11. The above regulations shall take effect at the date of publication.

In order to add weight to the proclamation, the government turned the Imperial Library of the late Manchu dynasty

at Peking into the Peking Metropolitan Public Library. Some of the provinces and special districts have carried out the order, but others owing to lack of funds are still in the period of preparation.

### CLASSES OF LIBRARIES

At present the Chinese libraries, excluding private ones, can be roughly divided into four main classes, namely public libraries, school libraries, society libraries, and special libraries.

### PUBLIC LIBRARIES

In old days many provincial capitals kept large collections of books printed from wooden blocks.\* They were stored in some public hall for the use of scholars. Since 1913 these places have been turned into public libraries. Some of them are maintained by endowments, but the majority by the educational funds of the districts and are thus under the control of the Commissioner of Education of that province.

As to the administration, nearly all of the public libraries not only have adopted the closed shelf-system in reading rooms, but also allow no circulation. Some of them require a small fee for admission, with the purpose of keeping away vagabonds and ruffians. Assetting charges for use of books in reading rooms are also practiced in many a public library.

For instance, the Peking Public Library sells tickets to those who wish to go in to read. There are six kinds of such tickets—namely, (1) two-copper ticket for ordinary books, (2) one-copper ticket for periodicals and newspapers, (3) one-copper student ticket for ordinary books, (4) free student ticket for periodicals and newspapers, (5) ten-copper ticket for incunabula, (6) five-copper ticket for the manuscript copy of the famous “Imperial Descriptive Catalogue of the Manchu dynasty.”

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\*See Tai, T.C. Brief sketch of Chinese Libraries in *Library Journal*, July, 1919, pp. 423-429.

The Peking Public Library has many reading rooms, such as a special reading room for special ticket holders, a ladies' reading room, a periodical and newspaper reading room, etc. These rooms are bare and the seats are not comfortable. As yet there have not been sufficient funds for lighting and heating facilities. There is much red tape in drawing out books.

Besides the six ordinary tickets there are two special tickets, first and second. Those who hold special tickets of the first class can enjoy the privilege of inspecting and using ordinary books, periodicals, newspapers, incunabula, etc., without charge and also that of having access to the stacks. Those who hold special tickets of the second class can enjoy only the free use of ordinary books, periodicals and newspapers.

Generally the public libraries have no recent publications, and there is much red-tape before admitting readers to the stack rooms.

### FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES

During the last decade the medieval idea of a library for a learned few has broken down and the intellectual kingdom has opened its gates for the plebians, who are daily getting bolder and wiser. The public library, they feel, should neither collect admission fee nor asset charge for use of books. This public feeling has been duly recognized, hence the system of free public libraries are introduced. Now many public libraries in the provincial capitals and cities gradually either discard the policy to charge fees for admission and use of books or establish free public libraries.

The policy of a free public library in China is to allow the readers to use its collections without any charge, but not to permit them to draw out books for home use. In connection with these libraries there are children's reading rooms and playgrounds. In spite of the financial difficulties the free public libraries are better administered than public

libraries. In addition to old Chinese books they have newly published books on various subjects. Children's rooms are supplied with pictorial tales and juvenile books and the playgrounds are always well patronized.

The libraries open on Sundays just as on week days. Some of them close on Mondays to give a holiday to the members of the staff. There are about 51 public libraries and 219 free public libraries.\* Quite a number, the writer has visited and investigated. They are all well patronized, as to improvement there is yet plenty of room. For instance the budget for the annual acquisition of books should be greatly increased, so that circulation departments can be established for promoting the use of books at home. Secondly the rooms are too bare and unattractive, and the furniture is not suitable especially in children's reading rooms. Fortunately in many prosperous localities at present there is a growing tendency toward establishing attractive and comfortable libraries.

### TRAVELING LIBRARIES

Under the administration of some public libraries, also traveling libraries† have been organized. At present about thirty traveling libraries are scattered over five provinces, namely Fengtien, Kiangsu, Kansu, Szechwan, and Yünnan. They are operated on a small scale. During the last few years the progress of these traveling libraries in the interior and mountainous regions has been much retarded due to the continuous disturbance of petty civil fights.

<i>Name of Province</i>	<i>Number of traveling libraries</i>	<i>Volumes</i>
Fengtien , . . . .	17	354
Kiangsu . . . . .	4	338

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\*Chinese Library Statistics, published by Peking Law College, 1922.

†The 4th statistical Report published by the Ministry of Education.

<i>Name of Province</i>	<i>Number of traveling libraries</i>	<i>Volumes</i>
Kansu . . . . .	4	300
Szechwan . . . . .	1	400
Yünnan . . . . .	4	420

## PUBLIC AND FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES

<i>Name of Province</i>	<i>Number of Public Libraries</i>	<i>Volumes</i>	<i>Number of Free Public Libraries</i>	<i>Volumes</i>
Peking . . . . .	2	25,000	1	1,400
Chihli . . . . .	2	14,160	4	900
Fengtien . . . . .	4	12,402	35	7,500
Kirin . . . . .	1	2,200	3	700
Heilungkiang . . . . .	2	1,830	3	650
Shantung . . . . .	1	3,000	23	10,000
Shansi . . . . .	7	10,000	9	2,700
Honan . . . . .	1	5,500	22	9,000
Kiangsi . . . . .	1	850	5	1,500
Kiangsu . . . . .	11	30,000	5	1,600
Anhui . . . . .	1	1,100	4	1,200
Fukien . . . . .	1	1,240	21	600
Chekiang . . . . .	6	8,000	21	5,350
Hupeh . . . . .	1	7,310	44	18,000
Hunan . . . . .	1	4,500	14	3,500
Shensi . . . . .	1	1,250	1	600
Kansu . . . . .	2	3,000	2	500
Singkiang . . . . .	—	—	4	1,200
Szechwan . . . . .	1	4,500	4	1,600
Kwangtung . . . . .	1	3,065	6	1,800
Kwangsi . . . . .	1	6,930	1	300
Yünnan . . . . .	1	4,740	6	1,500
Kweichow . . . . .	1	1,880	—	—
Jehol . . . . .	1	390	1	300
	51	72,400	239	152,847



The figures including the number of volumes in the different libraries are inaccurate, for some libraries consider pamphlets as books and others not. Furthermore some count the number of volumes in "pu" and others in "Pên." "Pu" means a set of books, sometimes one "pu" consists of hundreds of "pên" which is a folio volume.

### COLLEGE LIBRARIES

Almost every college in China now has a sort of library. According to the available statistics there are 37 college libraries maintained by various educational institutions. A few of the well known college libraries are as follows:

#### *I. Peking :*

	<i>Volumes in Chinese*</i>	<i>Volumes in foreign languages*</i>
1. Peking National University Library	65,000	15,000
2. Peking Teachers College Library .	10,000	8,000
3. Tsing Hua College Library . . .	50,000	25,000
4. Union Medical College Library . .	500	9,000
5. Yen Ching University Library . .	1,000	3,000

#### *II. Chihli:*

1. Nankai College Library, Tientsin .	6,000	7,000
2. Pei Yang University Library, Tien- tsin . . . . .	25,000	12,000

#### *III. Shantung:*

Shantung Christian University Library, Tsinan . . . . .	10,000	9,000
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#### *IV. Shansi:*

Shansi University Library, Taiyuan .	( ? )	( ? )
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\*The numbers of volumes in each library are approximate.

## LIBRARY MOVEMENT IN CHINA

### V. *Kiangsu* :

1. Fu Tan University Library, Shanghai . . . . .	( ? )	( ? )
2. Nanking University Library, Nanking . . . . .	4,000	10,000
3. St. John's University Library, Shanghai . . . . .	3,500	17,000
4. Nang Yang University Library, Shanghai . . . . .	20,000	5,000
5. Shanghai Baptist College Library, Shanghai . . . . .	1,500	3,500
6. Soochow University Library, Soochow . . . . .	2,500	9,000
7. National Southeastern University Library, Nanking . . . . .	10,000	7,000

### VI. *Hupei* :

1. Boone University Library, Wuchang . . . . .	15,000	12,000
2. Wuchang Teachers College Library, Wuchang . . . . .	21,000	3,000
3. Wesley College Library, Wuchang . . . . .	2,000	3,500

### VII. *Hunan* :

Yale College Library, Changsha . . . .	1,000	3,500
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### VIII. *Kwangtung* :

1. Canton Christian College Library, Canton . . . . .	5,000	9,000
2. Canton Teachers' College Library, Canton . . . . .	( ? )	( ? )

### IX. *Fukien* :

Amoy University Library, Amoy . . . .	( ? )	( ? )
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X. *Chekiang* :

Chekiang College Library, Hang-		
chow . . . . .	( ? )	( ? )

XI. *Kiangse* :

William Nest College Library, Kiu-		
kiang . . . . .	3,000	3,000

The libraries named above are scattered over eleven provinces. They all have two collections, one in Chinese, the other in foreign languages. All colleges maintained by the Chinese possess invariably a larger collection of Chinese books, while institutions supported by missionaries and western philanthropists always have more foreign books. Several reach the figure about 80,000 volumes.

As to classification most libraries classify books in foreign languages according to the Dewey Decimal System and Chinese books according to four main divisions, viz., (1) Classics (2) History (3) Philosophy (4) Belle Letters. It is nearly unavoidable to have two paralld systems of classifications used side by side in the same library. The nature of the old Chinese books is quite different from that of the western books. The ancient and comprehensive system of the above four main divisions with subdivisions is therefore inadequate for western books, as well as for the new Chinese books. For instance there is no place for a book on such a subject as gasoline engines. On the other hand the headings provided by the western library systems are not comprehensive enough for the old Chinese books. So the difficult task of working out a system of classification suitable for the old Chinese books as well as the new is at present confronting the Chinese librarians.

Beside the question of classification, there are other problems connected with books in the Chinese language, such as binding, lettering, cataloguing, indexing, filing cards, etc.

Libraries and library commissions have undertaken a few of these problems and try to find satisfactory solutions.

The Boone University Library has published a modified Dewey system adapted to Chinese books. It works fairly well but is not detailed enough for big libraries. The Tsing Hua College Library supplements this modified system with three tables to be used for books on China, one for language, one for the period divisions of the Chinese history, and the third a table of geographical divisions. The Kwangtung Library Commission has initiated two undertakings, one a list of author numbers for Chinese names, and the other a method of indexing Chinese characters. The last is still in the age of experiment. The characters of the Chinese language are themselves the very obstacles for introducing a workable system of indexing. The college libraries in China are not only centers for promoting a library movement, but also laboratories trying to solve some of the technical questions of library administration. Almost every college library has made some contribution to the development of modern libraries in China.

The Peking National University Library is considered as one of the best college libraries in China. It has a very fine collection of Chinese books among which are manuscripts and original imperial edicts most valuable for historical research. As to books in foreign languages the collection was originally well selected, but unfortunately not kept up for a number of years. At present the authorities feel the great need of a workable collection of western books, so a liberal annual budget has been provided for the purpose of buying new books. Partly due to Chancellor Y. P. Tsai's efforts, and partly due to the good will and generosity of The Library of Congress, the National University Library has been given a complete set of Library of Congress depository card catalogues. This much valued gift will undoubtedly be of great benefit to research students. The authorities are now

planning to erect a fire-proof building for these depositary catalogues and other national bibliographies.

Not far from the eventful spot where the ruins of the old Summer Palace of Peking (Yuan Ming Yuan) still can be seen, a humble library was founded in 1912 in the beautiful campus of Tsing Hua College. After the first few years it began to grow rapidly, now in the course of only nine years its collections in Chinese as well as in foreign languages are among the largest libraries in China.

The Library has at present 75,000 volumes of well selected books. It subscribes to 310 leading periodicals of the world and also 50 dailies. The circulation figure generally reaches to 2,500 books every month, besides a much bigger figure for books used in the reading rooms. The library not only provides reference facilities for the faculty and students, but also answers many reference questions from the alumni of the college as well as the teachers of various schools in northern China.

In order to accommodate the rapidly increasing number of books, an up-to-date and beautiful library building has been erected, the first library building in China to have Italian marble in the lobby, steel standard stacks, glass and cork floors, and other scientific equipment. According to the present rate of annual acquisition it will in the next ten years become the largest college library in China.

Tsing Hua College Library is also responsible for taking the initiative to promote a movement for scientific management of libraries. In the fall of 1918 it played an active part to form a Peking Library Association. The purpose of the Association is to further the interests of libraries in Peking. Under its auspices the system of inter-library loans of books have been introduced in the capital.

The missionary colleges in China have also much interest and desire in developing college libraries. Among the few noted ones, the Low Library of St. John's University, Shanghai, is one of the oldest. It was founded about 1890.

Mr. Low's donation formed the nucleus of the collection. It grew steadily year after year, until now it has its own quarters in the Anniversary Hall which was a gift from the alumni, students, and friends to the present president, Dr. Pott, in commemoration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his presidency.

For the sake of convenience in charging, shelving, and cataloguing, all the Chinese books in 1912 were bound in the style of English books. This was a great advance in the history of Chinese libraries. Both English and Chinese books were classified according to the Dewey decimal classification, and the experiment was introduced of having a card catalogue for Chinese books. The reading rooms which are divided into cosy alcoves, are attractive places for students to study and research.

Another well-known missionary college library is the Boone University Library at Wuchang. It was extended and reorganized about 1907. This library has been adequately organized and has done a great service not only to the students and alumni of that university, but also to the people of Hupeh and the neighboring provinces at large. It is the first institution in China to introduce a regular course of library science. Besides producing a class of trained librarians every year, the Boone University Library has also introduced the serviceable system of traveling libraries. It has already established more than twenty centers to handle the circulation of traveling libraries.

About nine college libraries at present have their own library buildings, as a rule the most beautiful and comfortable buildings on the college campus. The South Eastern University in Nanking is thus erecting a large and magnificent building which will after its completion be one of the most imposing libraries in the region of the Yangtze valley. It is safe to assert that in every respect the college libraries in China are more efficiently administered, richer in collection and better in service than the public libraries.

## SOCIETY LIBRARIES

The third type of libraries in China, generally known as society libraries, is now only in the period of dawning. They are now only a few in number, scattered in Peking and in cities along the coast. The annual expenditures and initial expenses of these libraries are secured either from donations or from the funds of the respective societies. They are generally only used by the members of the society. The collection of books is of course similar to the nature of the parent society. It will not be out of place here to describe very briefly a few of the well-known society libraries.

The best known is the library of the North China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society at Shanghai, founded about 1860. The collection on China given by Mr. Wylie formed its nucleus. Although the library is not very large, it is fairly strong in works on China. The Dewey Decimal Classification system was adopted in 1907 upon the recommendation of Dr. Bolton of the Boston Athenæum. The library is open daily and the privilege of taking out books is enjoyed by members only.

Another society library now rapidly coming to the front is that of the Science Society at Nanking, entirely maintained by the Chinese. Its collection emphasizes the various subjects of science. The catalogue and equipment are all up-to-date; it has a fine building and renders efficient library service to its members and the students in Nanking.

A famous memorial society library, formerly situated in Shanghai, was recently removed to Peking. It was founded by a group of well-known politicians in memory of General Tsai Ao\* who in 1915 managed to get down from Peking to Yunnan, there rallied his troops around him and frustrated Yuan Shih Kai's long cherished and ambitious plan of converting the Chinese Republic into his own personal dynasty.

\*Weale, Putnam: *Fight for the Republic in China*, Chapter 12, pp. 242-248.

General Tsai thus saved the Republic. Having accomplished this task, he succumbed to the rigors of his superhuman effort.

This library will occupy a large building in the beautiful Pei Hai, a part of the Winter Palace. The necessary arrangements, such as installing shelves, etc., are being made at present. It is intended soon to open Pei Hai to the public, and this memorial library will then constantly inspire the readers to follow the uplifting example of this immortal general.

The library has a well selected collection of books in Chinese and foreign languages and the Dewey Decimal system has been adopted, and it is planned to extend the privilege of using books also to the general public.

The fourth society library belongs to the Chinese Social and Political Science Association, Peking. It was started largely by a group of "Returned Students," but its final success in 1918 depended upon the United States of America, the late Imperial Manchu family and the Carnegie Endowment Corporation of New York. The first, through its worthy representative in Peking, Dr. Paul S. Reinsch, set apart the sum of taels 100,000 from the remitted fund of the Boxer Indemnity as initial and maintenance expenses of the library. The second kindly donated a centrally located site for the library building, and the third is the Carnegie Corporation to contribute every year about a thousand volumes in history, social and political sciences. I believe this is the first endowment of English books from that corporation to a library in China. The movement of founding society libraries is now slowly extending to the interior of the country.

### SPECIAL LIBRARIES

In order to increase the efficiency and knowledge of the component factors of certain organizations and bureaus, special libraries have been founded. Again, cities like Peking, Shanghai and Canton are in the lead. There are four special



libraries in the capital, namely, the Library of the Bureau of Geological Survey under the Ministry of Agriculture, the Library of the Railway Association under the Ministry of Communication, the Library of the Ministry of Education, and the Library of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Their collections are naturally along the lines of their respective spheres. Only the members of these ministries have the privilege of using the libraries. The Imperial system of classifying the books into classics, history, philosophy and belle letters is adopted in shelving the Chinese books. The collection in foreign languages are roughly grouped according to subjects. Generally no books can be loaned for home use.

In Shanghai there are two very interesting special libraries, one under the Chinese General Chamber of Commerce and the other established and maintained by the Commercial Press. The Library of the Chinese General Chamber of Commerce was founded in the Winter of 1921 under the leadership of Mr. C. C. Nieh, then the Chairman of the General Chamber of Commerce. He feels very keenly that the business men should not only have a thorough understanding of Chinese affairs, but also a general acquaintance of the conditions of the foreign societies and a thorough knowledge of the trade-problems of various mercantile nations. He persuaded the merchants to open their pockets to found a special library for their use. The writer had the privilege of organizing this library and of compiling a bibliography of books and periodicals suitable for industrial magnates, merchants and business men.

The Library of the Commercial Press has a unique feature, namely, its rare editions of many famous books; they are collected for the purpose of producing reprints. In addition to this the company has a good general collection for the use of the editorial staff-members and other employees. The relative location is used in shelving books which are classified according to the Dewey Decimal System.

In spite of the constant political troubles in Canton a special library for the use of educators was founded in January, 1922, by the Canton authorities. It has two parallel collections of books, one in Chinese and the other in foreign languages, chiefly on education and general reference. It acts as a laboratory for the short term library school in Canton. The administration is up-to-date, and this library intends to be the model library in the province of Kwangtung.

### LIBRARY SCHOOLS

Since the gradual disappearance of the old idea regarding the librarian as only a page to the scholars, the beginning of demanding trained librarians has been on foot; hence library schools in one form or another have been inaugurated to give courses in library science and administration.

The Boone University at Wuchang as mentioned before is the first institution in China to introduce a regular curriculum of library science. It gives a three years' course and admits only students of sophomore standing. Many young librarians now working in different libraries all over the country are the products of the Boone University Library School. The demand for trained librarians is larger than the Boone University can supply and many a library finds it impossible to await the employment of a trained librarian before transforming its storing place into a serviceable institution; hence library trustees and educators wish to introduce apprentice courses of library science and also summer schools in order to give the present library workers a general knowledge of library service.

In the Summer of 1920 the Peking Teachers College opened the first library summer school in China. It was a great surprise to all that the enrollment numbered seventy-eight men and women. Most of these were the librarians of various libraries in different provinces and sent up to attend the summer school. Even the Public Library of Amoy

(Fukien) delegated its librarian to attend the lectures in spite of the great distance and the summer heat. Among the seventy-eight attendants, nine were girls. The lectures, being strictly professional, were open to both sexes. Undoubtedly the innovation has exerted a strong influence in support of the movement toward co-education.

In the Spring of 1922 a short term course of library science was introduced in Canton by the Provincial Educational Committee. This apprentice course of three weeks was under the authority of the Kwangtung civil governor who asked all schools above the middle school to send an instructor or a staff-member to the capital to attend the lectures. The school was opened on March 27th and attended by sixty-five representatives from various high schools in the province. The forenoons were occupied by lectures on the principal points of classification, cataloguing, order and accession work and library administration, while in the afternoons the students did practice work. All the attendants would take charge of their native libraries after the expiration of this three weeks' course of library science.

The Peking Teachers College for Women, the Peking Teachers College, and the National Southeastern University are planning to introduce a regular library course. Probably in the near future the plans will be realized, and there will be three more institutes to supply trained librarians.

#### LIBRARY MEETINGS

In order to accelerate the library movement a Committee on Library Education was organized under the auspices of the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education. In July, 1922, at Tsinan, Shantung, the librarians of the principal educational institutions came together under one roof to discuss the many problems related to the question of launching a nation-wide library movement. Of the following resolutions passed by the Association, items number 2, 3, 7 and 8 have been carried out.

1. That all schools shall have instruction in the use of books..
2. That the normal schools in China shall offer courses in Library science.
3. That extension of school libraries shall be emphasized.
4. That the chief places, such as Shanghai, Hankow, etc., including provincial capitals, shall establish libraries.
5. That a National Library shall be properly established in Peking.
6. That the publishers of new books shall present one volume to the Ministry of Education, and one volume to the National Library.
7. That primary schools, within certain regions, shall unite to establish circulating libraries.
8. That a committee for the study of library science shall be organized by the national Association for the Advancement of Education.

Considering the rapid growth of modern libraries in various parts of China, a few common principles and practices should be followed by all for sake of the systematic development of libraries and library economy. Now the first step in the minds of the trained librarians is to form a national library association and in turn to ask each city to form a local library association. Meetings have already been called by the Library Committee of the National Association for the Advancement of Education to discuss several important problems such as coöperative buying, inter-library loans of books, consolidated catalogues and others. A spirit of coöperation between the various libraries of the same locality is a sure way to success for a library movement.

#### AMERICAN LIBRARY SCHOOL GRADUATES

Since 1914 five Chinese librarians have graduated from the New York Public Library School, New York City, and the New York State Library School, Albany. They are the

promoters of the library movement in China. At present there are four more men studying library science in the American library schools. They all had years of practical experience in administering libraries in China before they left for the United States of America to continue their studies.

### CONCLUSION

As the writer reviews the situation of the Chinese libraries, the progress during the last nine years has been a slow but steady one in spite of many difficulties, as civil wars, famines, and other calamities. If the educators and social workers will actively support a wide library movement in China, its result will be immeasurably great and deep. True democracy cannot be attained unless the bulk of the people can enjoy and utilize the printed material with easy access.

TENDENCIES IN PRESENT-DAY  
CHINESE EDUCATION

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## TENDENCIES IN PRESENT-DAY CHINESE EDUCATION

To understand the tendencies in present-day Chinese education, one has to take a cursory glance at the history of China during the last few decades. It is well known that China before her contact with the West had been in a sort of self-complacent slumber, fully satisfied with her past achievements. Her experience during the Opium War, and the Franco-Chinese War that happened later, brought about a different state of mind. She was aroused from her slumber and came to realize that something could be learned from the West, and this was along material lines. It was thought by noted statesmen, like Tseng Kuo-fan and Tso Tsung-tang, that China's defeat in wars was due to lack of munition of war and the like. They therefore recommended improvement of naval and coast defence, manufacture of arms and ammunition, construction of railways, scientific mining and similar measures. It never occurred to them that anything more than this was needed. The students that were then sent abroad were all required to study technical subjects—things that were calculated to improve the naval or military system of China. It was not until after the war with Japan and the Russo-Japanese War, that China began to realize that there was a need for something more than naval or military reforms. It dawned on the minds of leaders in the nation that the traditional system of education with its undue emphasis on literary scholarship and personal cultivation, together with the old spirit of filial attachment to the family, was responsible for the military and naval reverses. There came a general clamor for the abolition of the old examination system, which finally took place on September 5, 1905. Western knowledge, including history, science and political economy, came into vogue. Translations of Western works were



undertaken. Many papers and magazines were published. Among the aims of the new education were nationalism and martial spirit—things which were lacking in the old culture. It was also about this time that a commission consisting of five members was sent to America, Europe, and Japan to study and report on the various forms of government,—an event which was quite significant in that it indicated a dissatisfaction on the part of China with her own form of government, and that even in the realm of politics she had something to learn from the West. As a result of this, several reforms of political nature were introduced, and by an edict of November 6, 1906, the central government was reorganized, an important feature of the reorganization being the creation of the Board of Education. The Revolution then came in 1911, followed by release of pent-up energies. But disorders brought in its train convinced many people that a mere change of the form of government was not of itself sufficient to effect a new social order. Educated Chinese are fully aware of the fact that a change in dispositions and attitudes is indispensable to a realization of democratic ideals, and they believe that it is in education alone where the means can be found for bringing about this needed change. Then the unsettled political conditions in China tend to direct one's energy outward, thus creating a social interest, an objective-mindedness. At the same time the industrial changes taking place in China and in the world have made Chinese educators feel the need for vocational education. Though Chinese industries are still, for the most part, in the more or less primitive stage, yet changes are already taking place which tend to revolutionize them. Factories and manufactories are springing up in big cities, organized on quite a different plan from the old industries. In this connection we may refer to the influence exerted on the minds of the people, especially the educated class, by the theories of social and industrial reconstruction, introduced from the West. These have helped to leaven the lump or loosen things up.

The various changes that I have just outlined have produced the present-day Chinese education which, if analyzed, will resolve itself into certain general tendencies. These I shall consider separately, to be supplemented towards the end by certain considerations which seem to constitute the counter-currents in the stream of Chinese educational development.

As the most obvious tendency in present-day Chinese education I may mention the social emphasis. The aim of education has come to be looked upon as predominantly social. It is to liberate men and women from selfish interests, from the limits of mere attachment to the family. Nay, the tendency goes even further. There is a rather general reaction against the old ideal of individual culture, the emphasis on the health of the inner man, or *endaimonia* in the true and original sense of the word. Social efficiency becomes the watchword. There is much that can be said in favor of this change. To secure genuine democracy we must have citizens who are socially responsible, with a devotion to public ends and an interest in *res publica*. The student movement which took place several years ago may be cited as an example of this change in Chinese educational thought. The movement, at the time it was inaugurated, certainly produced a degree of likemindedness among the people which finds no parallel in their past. There was a general interest in social service. The form of social service which engaged the attention of the students was popular education. An effort was made to secure a wider distribution of knowledge, in a word, to democratize learning. Those who were working to promote the movement realized that there can be no genuine democracy, no real social progress, unless the mass of the people are enlightened and awakened. True the enthusiasm has somewhat abated but the expansion of the Chinese spirit which it produced has left a trace in Chinese education which is ineffaceable. We who look back upon that movement will find a similar

phenomenon in those social and intellectual changes which took place in German history at the beginning of the nineteenth century under the leadership of Fichte and Arndt. There was much the same moral idealism, the same emphasis on the absorption of the individual in a larger and fuller life.

What we need to do now is to deepen the sense of social responsibility thus aroused and give it a firm and rational basis rather than let it degenerate into a vague enthusiasm or a mere ebullition of emotion. Perhaps the system of student self-government which has been introduced into many schools of middle school grade will, if properly used, prove to be an effective means of securing this needed "discipline." It provides opportunity for team work and cultivates in those participating in the work a likemindedness on a sensitiveness to the claims of others which are so essential to democratic living. A freely contributing character is what present-day education in China should develop.

In this connection we should mention the fact that there is at present a movement to make education compulsory. It was indeed started some years ago but only recently has it acquired enough momentum to become nation-wide. In this work Shansi is ahead of the other provinces where it is estimated that at least sixty percent of the children of school age are in school. This example is being emulated by other provinces. It is the general plan that by the end of 1928 compulsory education will have been adopted throughout the country.

Coupled with the social consciousness is a sense of freedom. This expresses itself in the so-called new culture movement, a phenomenon in many respects similar to the sophistic movement in Greek history or the enlightenment in the eighteenth century and those changes which preceded and followed it. It calls for a transvaluation of traditional values, a revision of the old standards. Great changes have

been thus produced in morality, literature and social customs. In some quarters the tendency has gone rather too far. Instead of trying to revise the old system and at the same time conserve what has permanent value, there is sometimes an almost wholesale condemnation of traditional values and canons, for example, some students have condemned Chinese classical literature as dead and aristocratic, not knowing that both its form and content contain elements which possess permanent value not only for China, but for the rest of the world as well. It is an important task of Chinese education to produce scholars who are able to effect a real synthesis, not an external amalgamation of old and new values, thus creating a genuinely new culture which, while taking in the best in the new, remains also true to Chinese genius.

This democratic movement has effected changes in the general method and content of instruction. Here we have to refer to the influence of Professor John Dewey. His books and the lectures which he delivered during his stay in China have been an important factor in bringing about these changes. There is a great deal of writing and talking now about interests and instincts. The child is becoming an important object of study. In teaching we are told not to impose anything on the child but to appeal to its natural interests. The project method is becoming a fad. There is much emphasis laid on self-activity or initiative. The Dalton plan is being introduced into some middle schools, because of the opportunity that plan affords for free pursuit of knowledge. The elective system is coming into vogue for the same reason.

Of course there is here the danger arising from a mistaken conception of self-activity or appeal to natural interests. The whim or caprice of the moment may be mistaken for the permanent interests of the child. **Incidental learning takes the place of systematic mastery. Any activity is good, so long as it has the semblance of**

self-activity. We have in education what corresponds to futurism or cubism in art. This is noticeable even in schools which are regarded as models. For example, in teaching Chinese penmanship where a certain amount of direction and imitation is indispensable, students are allowed to scribble in any way they please. All this is done in the name of self-activity! The most unfortunate thing is the separation of freedom from responsibility or mental discipline. Such phenomena, however, are unavoidable in the transitional period.

I have touched on the changes which have brought about the vocational emphasis in education. Now this is also a reaction against the traditional emphasis on spiritual culture. In the past too little attention was given to the means of life. More importance was attached to the quality of the life lived than to material self-preservation. Trade was held in far greater contempt by their philosophers than ever in the West.

Now this scale of values is almost overturned. Men of wealth are taking the place of scholars in general social estimation. Material efficiency is considered more important than spiritual culture. At the same time there is more interest taken in the betterment of the lot of the masses. We gain in breadth what we lose in depth. The leisure which was formerly enjoyed by the elite, the select few, is now to be shared by the common people. But in order to enjoy such leisure there is required an economic basis. One must live before one can live well. So underlying the vocational emphasis there is a certain *noblesse oblige*, an interest in the well-being of the masses. The economic pressure so keenly felt in China cannot but develop in men and women a social sympathy and a humane disposition with regard to those who are economically unfortunate.

Among those who are most influential in promoting this movement we should mention the name of Mr. Hwang Yuen-pai who, with the aid of several educators, has started the National Association of Vocational Education with its head-

quarters in Shanghai. The association has now a membership of more than 4,000 people scattered over the whole country. A vocational school has been established in connection with the association, doing good work along various lines. In other parts of the country similar schools have also been started—for both men and women.

This emphasis on vocational education is not only limited to schools which are strictly vocational in nature, but also is found in schools or courses of a general character usually regarded as belonging to a different kind. The school system, recently adopted, may be mentioned as an example of this tendency. The essential feature of the new system is the expansion of the old middle school course by including the last year of the higher primary school and the first year of the college or university which under the old system usually offers a five-year course. Thus the system, so far as the primary and secondary aspects are concerned, becomes six-three-three, i.e., six-year elementary which again is divided into a lower grade of four years and a higher grade of two years; three-year junior middle school and three-year senior middle school. Among the advantages of the new system is its elasticity. It facilitates the dropping out of students who for some reason or other are not able to go on; it leaves room for parallel vocational courses. For example, in the higher grades of primary school, work may be provided to prepare for vocational training, and in the junior middle school special vocational courses may be given for those who do not want to go on and prepare themselves for college or university work. Thus we separate in an early stage those who are to receive higher education from those who, because of lack of financial help, are to enter the industrial life.

This vocational emphasis is also carried into colleges and universities. The course of study is too highly specialized. Students are allowed to select a "major" even in the first year. There is not enough attention given to general culture. The result is a narrow professionalism. In teachers colleges

mechanical efficiency is oftentimes set up as an ideal. The method or content of instruction is presented to students so that they can, without much further effort on their part, make use of it later in life. All this emphasis on technical and professional training is entirely in harmony with the high esteem usually accorded to external achievement as against personal culture, which is oftentimes regarded as more or less parasitic in character.

Equally obvious is the scientific tendency in Chinese education. Ever since the introduction of Western science into China, the applications of scientific knowledge, with their utility, have had much fascination for the Chinese people. A new world is opened up to them—a world full of wonder and attraction. In place of the traditional attitude of appreciation toward nature and natural forces, and of seeking to understand their spiritual meaning, there comes the effort to control and harness them to human needs. The exploitation of the ethico-spiritual world is being replaced by that of the world of nature. The Baconian ideal lays hold of the minds of the people. Devotion to personal culture comes to be looked upon as a chase after the *ignis fatuas*.

The importance thus attached to practical utility or the means of life is undoubtedly a reaction against the one-sided emphasis on spiritual culture, and the reaction is a healthy one so long as it is kept within proper bounds. A proper control over natural forces must be regarded as an important basis for a cultural life, a life devoted to ideal values.

But those who look beneath the mere application of science believe that the study of science has a different or even higher function to perform. In their opinion the value of science lies not so much in the material utility as in the discipline it affords. The open-mindedness, the intellectual honesty, the accuracy or exactness of statement, in short, all the qualities which constitute what we call scientific mood or spirit, make an important, even indispensable supplement to

the traditional culture in China. The traditional ethico-spiritual interest draws attention away from the careful observation of nature, and the close scrutiny of fact. Facts or natural phenomena are studied not for their own sake, but for their moral or spiritual meanings or as reflections of inner moods of life. Further, the stress laid on personal relations operates against the development of the powers to draw clean-cut distinctions. It is true that the scientific method has been used in the past in the study of written documents, with reference to both the determination of authorship and textual interpretation. But this can hardly be said to constitute an essential factor in Chinese culture; it does not enter into the traditional standard of values, or modify the real spirit of Chinese thought or Chinese genius.

For the remedy of the above-mentioned defects, if we may regard them as such, the study of science is perhaps a most effective means. We need to supplement our traditional culture by what we may call the scientific culture, with its emphasis on accuracy and exactness of thought, as opposed to intuitive insight.

This scientific tendency is already noticeable in several different fields. For several years the Southeastern University has made use of the new type of entrance examinations, and to a large extent have used it in place of the old essay type. In the words of an American educator, the new type "affords no chance for the bluffer to exercise his arts," and the new form of questioning involved requires "expert shooting with a rifle instead of with a shot-gun." It develops accuracy of information rather than mere verbosity.

The visit of Dr. Paul Monroe has given quite an impulse to the movement. In his lectures he emphasized more than anything else the need for improving the method of teaching science. In his report on education in China, he says "the great need in the intellectual life of the Chinese is the introduction of the scientific mind to modify the philosophical, speculative and theoretical attitude towards



the problems and activities of every-day life." It was through his effort that the National Association for the Advancement of Education has this year secured the service of Professor Twiss of Ohio State University for the improvement of the content and methods of Science education in Chinese schools, while Mr. P. C. Chang, Director of Secondary Education of this Association, is making a scientific study of the problems connected with the reconstruction of the curriculum. At the same time, Professor McCall of Teachers' College, Columbia University, is trying to construct and standardize a series of educational and intelligence tests for the elementary and secondary schools, though it should be said that Messrs. C. W. Luh, S. C. Liao and H. C. Chen of Nanking, and Messrs. Y. T. Chang and T. T. Lew of Peking had been carrying on similar work of quite an original nature.

In this connection we should mention the fact that there is at present a widespread tendency to apply the scientific method to the study of Chinese history, philosophy and literature, which consists of abundant material in an unorganized form. Among the efforts in this direction we should mention Dr. Suh Hu's History of Chinese Philosophy which, with all its defects, is an attempt to systematize old materials, and also the Critical Review which aims, among other things, to interpret the spirit and to systematize the materials of Chinese culture.

The foregoing are the main currents in present day Chinese education. Now, as I have already indicated, there are certain currents which are below the surface and seem to run counter to those which I have described above. These are not so sharply defined but are silently gathering momentum and may in time effect important changes in Chinese education.

First of all, there is a renewal of interest in the traditional emphasis on the subjective,—moral introspection and

delicacy of moral feeling or conscience. This is of course in opposition to the social tendency which tends to degenerate into superficial or merely external conduct, or a kind of vague enthusiasm. Under the guise of performing social service one may conceal evil motives and moral unscrupulousness. Too much of the expending or outgoing spirit is against rational self-control which is so indispensable to a healthy and true intellectual life.

There is also an increased emphasis on moral education. As has been noted, Chinese Education in the past emphasized spiritual or moral culture at the expense of material or even social efficiency. A true scholar pursues his studies free from any idea as to their immediate usefulness. It is a kind of self-cultivation. Now under the influence of modern commercialism Chinese schools have adopted efficiency as their ideal. Some schools become places where, in the words of a noted Chinese scholar, knowledge is sold like commodities. Many private schools, like business firms, are organized on the principle of profit and loss. Little or no attention is given to the life of the students. Teachers are paid for the number of hours of teaching; there is no opportunity for personal conference or personal, informal contact between the student and the teacher.

It is such phenomena as this which call forth the present emphasis on moral education. Many educators are beginning to realize that the ultimate aim of education is to develop a type of character or personality. The formation of a right attitude and disposition is more important than imparting knowledge. Some even go so far as to advocate a revival of the old time academies where ample opportunity was provided for personal conference and contact, and free pursuit of knowledge, unrestrained by utilitarian considerations. Others advocate the adoption of the English system as found in Oxford and Cambridge where the emphasis on the formation of character so fully accords with the traditional ideal in China.

I have here made articulate what lies inarticulate in the minds of many people. It is predicted by some that during the next ten or fifteen years these tendencies will assert themselves and produce their effects in Chinese education.

We believe Chinese education, or perhaps the education of the world, is to combine the various apparently contradictory tendencies that have been treated into a great synthesis—a synthesis that will harmonize personal and moral culture with social service, industrial efficiency, and the study of science. This calls for nothing less than a philosophy of education.

# PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN CHINA

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## PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN CHINA

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Physical Education in the modern sense is a comparatively new growth. But there is very little new under the sun, and in China there is a rich inheritance historically in this line. The reading of ancient books shows that China has much the same background as ancient Egypt, Greece, and Rome. In the misty past China's warlike leaders evolved a physical system, the parent of the present Japanese Jiu jitsu, which had for its purpose the development of the warrior, enabling him to conquer in battle. This "Wu-shu," or military art, has been handed down for thousands of years, being adulterated from generation to generation by those who thought to embellish it, but who had no wars for which to standardize it, to eliminate the flourishes, and distinguish between the good and the simply good-to-watch; and it is still cherished as the one uniquely Chinese physical training—the only true son of the soil. It has in it much that is excellent, and much that is only a relic of the past, an anachronism from the days when men fought with spears and axes and quarterstuffs. But it is still an art with a great appeal to the patriotic.

In the ancient literature China's heroes were those mighty both with sword and with pen. China's classic division of the population into "Shih, nung, kung, shang," or "Scholar, farmer, laborer, and merchant," has no place for the professional soldier—in those days he was not needed, for all, as in Europe in the time of chivalry, were trained and able.

With the advent—some 1000 years ago—of the literary examinations as the basis for preferment, and with the further

elaboration of the "eight legged essay" as the model—an art which demanded such close application to study as has rarely been seen in Europe and America—the ideals regarding the physical changed, and for the last 800 years the scholar lengthened his nails and gowns, and in other ways pointedly declared his contempt for all that was of the body. All wants were met by servants, who in turn, if well enough to do had other servants, "and so on, *ad infinitum*."

The hygiene of ancient China was reflected in the boiling of everything, even of the water. But the proverbs of the people, "What you do not see is clean," and "What touches water is cleansed," are to-day taking the place, among the great masses, of modern hygiene and sanitation—with the inevitable results.

The beginnings of modern physical education came with the training of the Chinese army by the Germans several tens of years ago, and the introduction at that time of German gymnastics in the army, even among the officers. This was followed with a type of Swedish gymnastics—diluted by passing through Japan—which came with the introduction of the Japanese military system following the Russo-Japanese war. Both have stuck in the army, though in somewhat emasculated shape, ever since, and one still sees dignified army officers in uniform and boots mount the high bar and do the giant swing and a somersault. It has all taken on some of the flavor of the "Military Art" with the resulting deterioration of form and posture.

About twenty years ago came the establishment of professional schools of physical training, largely for the training of drill-masters for the army. The teachers were students returned from Japan, with the characteristic militaristic outlook and training in military drill and gymnastics. They did a splendid pioneer work, and have staffed the army and the schools with such as they have had until very recently. There are among these, several schools for women—all teaching a rather masculine type of work.

About ten years ago there began a great revival in the ancient Chinese "Military Art." Schools and clubs for the propaganda of this art were organized in many parts of China. As in most revivals of the ancient, much is prized very highly that is only a relic of the past—much as is the case with the excessive emphasis on Latin in the schools in many parts of Europe. Of these advocates of the Military Art, the Ching Wu Athletic Association and the Chinese general, Ma Liang, of Shantung, have been the leading factors. The influence of this work has been great, and is by no means on the wane. Its main need is for a scientific study in the light of modern knowledge of physiology and psychology and a weeding out of those elements that are purely anachronisms in the light of the civilization of to-day.

With the advent of the modern missionary and the Young Men's Christian Association into China, a new note began to creep in. The missionary of the present athletic college generation in America introduced into the mission school in China that factor of his college life which had meant so much in his *alma mater*. Since the days of China's military heroes the gowns had grown long, and it was a large order to move the young generation, but it began. At the Nanyang Industrial Exposition in Nanking twelve years ago was held the first national athletic meet, and with a success that made a great impression on young China.

The organizer of that meet—Dr. Max Exner of the Young Men's Christian Association—then began to train up Chinese young men as leaders in physical education of the modern type, and the modern development in this field owes its origin largely to Dr. Exner and his successors.

Sporadically, athletic games began in this school and that. Then came the introduction of intercollegiate meets, then more general and popularized athletics through the Young Men's Christian Association, and the whole culminated with the organization eleven years ago of the Far Eastern



Athletic Association with the biannual games between China, the Philippines and Japan.

At the present time, although there is a great depression owing to the unsettled political conditions throughout the country, there are everywhere athletic games and meets between colleges, middle schools and primary schools. Clubs are being organized, and the movement is spreading.

With this athletic development there is the spread of a new interest in hygiene and sanitation. It is being taught in all schools of the modern type of organization, and several movements have been organized to push it and develop a program.

#### IMPORTANT EVENTS

Among the epoch-making events in physical and health education one would have to first list the visit of the Chinese Educational Commission to America in 1914-15. Of this Commission, Mr. Hwang Yen-pei of the Kiangsu Educational Association took a keen interest in playgrounds and the development of play life in America. Upon his return his first act was to start something in his native province. An institute was started and a course of four months given to 132 physical directors who had been trained by the older type of schools. These men are still the nucleus of the modern movement in East China.

Riding on the wave of enthusiasm that attended the success of this institute the first step towards the establishment of a high grade of training for physical education was made at the NATIONAL SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY—then the Nanking Teachers College with the beginnings of the professional course for teachers. This first course was one of two years. It has been extended first to three years and now to four, and is at present the only place where a satisfactory grade of work is being done. This was followed by the establishment of a similar course in the Peking Teachers College, where owing to the governmental difficulties it has

been difficult to efficiently carry on the work. Later the Young Men's Christian Association organized a school of much promise but before graduating a class it had to be given up and has not been started again.

At about the same time the Young Women's Christian Association started a school with a two year's course for women. This school has revolutionized the physical work for women in China and is doing a splendid piece of work, even with such a short and somewhat incomplete course.

The interest of educators has been turning more and more towards physical education, and provincial institutes, summer schools and playgrounds—in Kiangsu province over fifty have attested the concrete steps they have taken to promote this work.

The establishment of the Peking Union Medical College and the Council on Health Education have been two large steps in the promoting of health education. Both of these institutions are yet in their infancy, so far as concrete results are concerned, but are of vital importance to the future.

The Chinese Health Association, organized by Dr. S. M. Woo, is another organization which has, as yet, done but little in a concrete way but which is sure to be a great factor in future development.

#### PRESENT SITUATION

The present political situation, with the financial instability and the daily uncertainty regarding the future, is retarding progress in no uncertain manner. Educationally, China is hard put to it to hold her own—yet with all this, progress is being made. With an express train vision and a wheelbarrow income, educational institutions are in a position of discouragement such as few Western institutions can appreciate.

Physical education in China, as has been the case in the West and still is in many places, has not yet been established

as a dignified profession drawing to its fold the best men in education. Its reputation in the past few centuries as a profession of the circus and the ring is a tremendous handicap to its present development. Native physical educators who are of the first water in intelligence and native ability can yet be counted on the fingers of one hand, and the increase in recruits of that class is slow indeed, but its "soul goes marching on."

To counteract the above the educators of the largest vision and influence are solidly behind the movement. At the present, political stability and the resulting easing of the financial stress would mean more advancement in the next five years than in the last five hundred.

In the larger number of schools physical education is at least universal, everyone is taking it. The nature of the teaching may be questionable, but it is being taught, and in the best manner that the teacher is able to teach. The handicap of a scanty literature in the subject is a large obstacle to rapid progress. Within the last two years a national association of the physical directors has been formed and is producing a magazine of merit. This will, in the near future, have a powerful effect upon the advance in teaching material and technique in the schools.

The organization one year ago of the *Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education* carried with it the assistance in educational research which, in the physical education section, has been a great stimulus to progress. The results are already visible, and the plan for a national physical survey this year are under way.

#### PRESENT TENDENCIES

At present there is a tendency to consolidate what is already in the field rather than to make advances that would involve too much financial outlay. Hence the present schools are doing more of an intensive rather than an extensive work. Much stress is being put on the securing

of men of a higher caliber for the physical directorship, and on the training of such men as can take over the work in organizing and supervising the work in large centers.

The biggest single advance is the development of definite standards for physical work in schools. These standards are just being put into effect and will inevitably improve the teaching and the motivation of the work manifold.

At this stage little can be done in national promotion. Hence there is the tendency to limit the work to local centers where a real piece of demonstration can be carried on. This will eventually be of more value than any extensive work that could be organized at this time.

#### THE FUTURE

The first flush of faddism is past, the dew of the first enthusiasm has evaporated, and the hard facts are the only things ahead. This is, on the whole, a good thing for a movement cannot ride forever on the tide. The future in physical education in China is, as is the case in all other phases of Chinese life, a piece of hard work. Problems are pressing rather too fast for the best development of the science. The new developments in health education press for a reorganization before organization has really taken place. Seemingly solid ground sinks beneath the feet. But these are only challenges for a stronger effort.

The coming national survey of physical education and health education will bring out the facts in a way to leave no doubt of the need, and probably will point the way to the next step. With definite records and standards, progress should be certain and definite, if not rapid.

Before the situation in education is crystalized, the development of modern industry is beginning to challenge, with the health problems connected therewith. On the whole, the problem is too large for the present forces available for their solution.

With all the problems the ice has been broken. Physical and health education is a recognized profession, and its contribution is a valued one. As in starting a carriage, the first few steps are the hardest; and when the momentum is accumulated, it goes easier. This is the time for intensive development of a *demonstration* and of a *concrete program*. The project must be thoroughly told to the people, and the content of the work must be stabilized and standardized—then, and only then, can extensive work be undertaken with any success.

China is a large problem for the educator. The coupling of a twentieth century educational system onto a medieval industrial development, and a chaotic political situation offer to the educator in China problems greater than those faced by the educator in the West. China has a large load. It will take mighty strength to start it in motion. It must, in the nature of the case, accumulate momentum slowly. It will take several years for education of any form to permeate Chinese society. Yet when the nation is stabilized and the force that now is used to raise one percent of young China one hundred feet, educationally, is applied to raise one hundred per cent of young China one foot, and another foot and another foot, then will the result be as mighty as the problem is now.

In this process physical education must play a tremendous part. Not only must health be conserved and developed but the stagnation of the centuries with no play life, with the inevitable emasculation of the personality of the great mass, must be wiped out. A NEW YOUNG CHINA with not only modern knowledge and modern training and modern industry and government but with a positive personality, with initiative, self-reliance, aggressiveness and fight must be developed. And only through that laboratory for the development of social ethics and personality afforded by the playground and the athletic field can this come to pass. China is on her way!

# THE CHINESE RENAISSANCE

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## A FOREWORD

### ON THE INTELLECTUAL TRANSFORMATION OF CHINA

In Dr. Hu Shih, the author of this illuminating essay and the acknowledged leader of the Literary Revolution, we find an epitome of the intellectual transformation of modern China.

An heir to an accumulated scholarly tradition, he received his early education in the classical literature, well disciplined in the values and lores of old.

Next came the change. New knowledge must be sought. Classics alone was felt to be wanting. He proceeded to Shanghai, the commercial metropolis of the new East, in search of the learning of the West. There he allowed himself, for a brief period, the first enthusiasms of the young reformers, which may be characterized in his own words, as being "all blind imitation and no rational appreciation or critical judgment."

In 1910, he went to America to study, aiming to become a scientific farmer, following the mode of youthful aspiration in thinking that the contribution of the West lies chiefly in modern technology.

But after a year's trial, the old instinct in literature and philosophical inquiry could no longer be chained. It broke loose and plunged the young student into a heated study into Western learning along literary and philosophical lines.

By this route the return is made to the wealthy and seductive store of Chinese culture with a new zest and a new technique.

Thus in the brief episodes of one man's intellectual pilgrimage we discern the temper of the new age in China.



Without the need of any apology, the Chinese intellectual to-day is still the literarily-minded animal with a long and unforgettable lineage. Here, we believe, is health and also unbounded hope. Somehow the thousands of years of the sanest kind of culture—has the world ever witnessed any culture with so little cheap enthusiasm and with comparatively so little morbid introversion?—have made the Chinese so unreasonably reasonable that they dare to refuse to bow to imported patterns *en masse*.

Here is the key to the understanding of the seething mystery of the complicated drama being enacted in China to-day.

To the Western reader, untroubled with much Sinological learning, perhaps we may suggest that the beginning should better be made with Section III of this essay. Here he is immediately introduced to the moving scenes of the intellectual transformation that has been gathering strength for the last five years and that has already produced marvelous unexpected results. Sections I and II relate the antecedents and the basic motivating forces of the movement of to-day, and hence may be more readily appreciated after the movement is first briefly surveyed.

It is yet too early to gauge the full significance of the intellectual transformation which the leaders are wont to nickname the Chinese Renaissance. In regard to the three main phases of the movement, namely, the advocacy of the spoken tongue as the national language, the critical introduction of the learning of the West, and the re-systematization of the old learning, a good beginning has been made along each line. We shall not enumerate here the stupendous volume of writings inspired by the new mood. As a line of guidance to our interested friends in the West, however, we may venture to indicate that the contributions of the

movement will lie more and more in the field of critical and historical endeavor in "the rebirth of an old civilization under the influence of a new impulse and a new attitude,"—one work of lasting significance being our author's still uncompleted "Outlines in the History of Chinese Philosophy," one volume of which has so far appeared.

CHANG PENG CHUN.

(P. C. CHANG)



## THE CHINESE RENAISSANCE

### I

Many a theory has been advanced to characterize that epoch in European history known as the Renaissance. Some hold that the greatest achievements of the European Renaissance were the discovery of the world and the rediscovery of man. Others maintain that the Renaissance may be best described as an age of rebellion against authority and of the rise of a critical spirit. Each of these descriptions may be readily applied to what we now call the age of Chinese Renaissance and the application will still be found remarkably accurate.

Many foreign residents in Peking must have had occasion to see the famous actor Mei Lan-fang playing the pretty little nun who could not stand the lonely life of the nunnery and resolved to run away from it in order that she may not waste away her springtime among the dumb images of bodhisattvas. But very few who saw this play realized that this pretty little nun symbolized the awakening of life in a new age, just as Browning's *Fra Lippo Lippi* symbolized a similar awakening during the European Renaissance. Another play which many foreign admirers of Mei Lan-fang must have seen is the *Peony Pavilion*, in which a young man meets a beautiful young girl in a dream and, while they are meeting and loving each other, the gods strew flowers upon them and the spirits of the flowers dance in glorification of their union. Such glorification of the flesh is again characteristic of the age (the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries) in which these plays were written. In the novels, as well as in the dramas, we find numberless indications of the same appreciation, sometimes refined, but often grotesque, of life in this world of pleasure and love.

But the age of Chinese Renaissance which roughly covers the last three hundred years, was above all an age of emancipation and criticism. Politically, the spirit of rebellion manifested itself in two great movements for political reform. The first of these was the Tung Lin (東林) Movement, headed by a number of philosopher-scholars and directed against the corruption and misrule under the régime of powerful eunuchs. Tung Lin was the name of a philosophical school in Wu Sih, in the present province of Kiangsu; but as a movement for political reform it included many of the best intellectuals of the time. In the year 1625, a number of the Tung Lin leaders died under the bastinado or in the imperial prisons. But three years later, when the last emperor of the Ming dynasty came to the throne, all the powerful eunuchs and their supporters were duly punished and the cause of the Tung Lin reformers was justly vindicated.

In the two decades following the death of the Tung Lin leaders, there arose another formidable political movement known as the Fu Shê (復社) Movement. Shê means a society. Whereas the Tung Lin leaders fought political corruption with their moral courage and self-sacrifice, the Fu Shê people planned to effect reform by winning political power through party organization,—a thing almost unknown in the history of China. The Fu Shê began as a literary society and grew into a powerful political party, often causing the rise and downfall of many a cabinet minister.

But time was against their success. Many years of utter misrule had caused a widespread of bandits whom the demoralized troops of the imperial government failed to suppress and who at last overthrew the Ming dynasty in 1643. Then came the Manchus who had, for over half a century, been a constant source of terror to the Ming government. The Manchus drove out the bandits from Peking and founded there a new dynasty of their own which lasted until 1911. The infant creation of the Chinese literati was powerless in saving the empire from nation-wide banditry and from

the invasion of a new and vigorous tribe. Nevertheless they made a respectable stand first in resisting the new government in the north and, a generation later, in trying to win political power under the new empire. It was only after several most cruel persecutions that the political insurgency which represented the spirit of the age gradually subsided, and the new spirit had to seek its outlet in a quite different channel.

It was in the field of thought and scholarship that the spirit of the age found its best expression. For four centuries the intellectual world had been under the domination of the philosopher Chu Hsi (朱熹, 1130-1200) whose commentaries to the Confucian Classics were recognized both by the government and by the general public as the orthodox interpretation. The cosmological and moral speculations of the Chu school were accepted as the standard system of cosmology and morals. Deviation from the Chu philosophy was socially tabooed. 'Ever since the time of the philosopher Chu,' said Hsüeh Hsüan (薛瑄, 1389-1464), a Ming philosopher of very high standing, "the Truth has been made manifest to the world. No more writing is needed: what is left to us is practice." It is true that early in the sixteenth century a rebellion arose in the new philosophy of Wang Yang-ming (王守仁, 1472-1528) which was essentially a protest against the Chu school. Yet, even the rebels had to conceal their own identity under the disguise of the predominant school, and Wang Yang-ming found it necessary to write a new treatise on the Philosophy of Chu Hsi, so distorting the facts as to make people believe that the new doctrines were in complete agreement with the "mature" thoughts of the great Sung master!

In justice to the thinkers of the Sung period (1000-1200), we must say that that period was in itself a renaissance. The invention of printing in the ninth century and the establishment of schools throughout the country during the eleventh century, led to an age of intellectual maturity. Modern Chinese philosophy, which had its origin in the Buddhistic

and Taoistic speculations of the Middle Ages, now openly declared its independence and formally severed relations with those schools. A New Confucianism was now arising. In spite of the individual differences of the various thinkers, the Sung period may be fairly described as an age of independent thinking and critical scholarship. Some doubted the authenticity of the *Book of Chou Li*, others accepted only three of the Five Classics; Ou-yang Shiu (歐陽修, 1007-1072) held that the Appendices to the *Book of Change* were later interpolations, and Ssu-ma Kuang (司馬光, 1019-1086) tried to show that the *Book of Mencius* was a forgery. In Chu Hsi, the greatest of all the Sung thinkers, the critical spirit found the fullest embodiment. He emphatically rejected the *Prefaces* to the poems in the *Book of Odes*, and advised us to find their meaning by reading the poems themselves. He was the first to express doubt about that part of the *Book of History* known as the "Old Script" (古文) portion, which has since been proved to be a forgery of the third century A. D. Cheng Yi (程頤, 1033-1107) held that "Learning begins with thinking"; and his friend Chang Tsai (張載, 1020-1077) repeatedly emphasized the importance of Doubt.

Unfortunately, those great thinkers who sought and found light through doubt and criticism, were soon so elevated by official recognition and public worship that their own doctrines gradually came to be accepted as beyond any doubt! Authority once more took the place of free and independent thinking. And the age of criticism finally ended in a period of slavish adherence to the Sung tradition.

Consequently, when the second period of Chinese Renaissance began, it was mainly anti-Sung in character. The first move was to attack the cosmological and philosophical assumptions of the Sung thinkers. It was pointed out that their cosmology was borrowed from Medieval Taoism and Buddhism, and therefore non-Confucian. Moreover, their theories of morals and psychology were also shown to be highly tainted with Taoism and Buddhism. In this first

anti-Sung drive, the cosmological attack scored almost complete success: The heroes of the battle were Mao Chi-ling (毛奇齡, 1623-1716), Huang Chung-hsi (黃宗羲, 1610-1695), Hu Wei (胡渭, ?-1714), and others. In the moral and political field, a new school of philosophy arose in northern China under the leadership of Yen Yuan (顏元, 1635-1704), who condemned the hairsplitting speculations of the Sung school about reason and human nature as totally idle and futile, and suggested as substitute for their quietism a new philosophy of practical activity, emphasizing moral practice and knowledge of the arts and institutions.

In the eighteenth century, a second drive against the Sung learning was begun with still greater force and vitality. This time, the general tendency was to condemn all Sung scholarship as unscientific, as too subjective. Critical as they were, the Sung scholars made no systematic study of ancient dictionaries and rhyme-books, and had no knowledge of the laws of phonetic and semasiological changes, laws which were essential to a scientific understanding of the ancient books. The science of Chinese philology did not rise until the seventeenth century when Chen Ti (陳第, fl. 1600) attempted to reconstruct the ancient pronunciation of the *Book of Odes*, and Ku Yien-wu (顧炎武, 1613-1681) published his *Five Books in Ancient Phonetics* which laid the cornerstone of that science. Heretofore Chinese scholars only attempted to explain ancient words with the aid of ideographic suggestions, but few or none ever realized that it was in the *sounds*, not in the written form, that the early meaning and life-history of words are to be sought. Since the time of Ku Yien-wu, scholars began to study the phonetic changes and semantic development of words and the laws that explain them. Variations in the written form of characters were now to be understood in terms of phonetic changes. Although these scholars were greatly hampered in their work by the peculiarities of the Chinese language, they have succeeded in formulating a number of laws explaining



changes in both vowels and consonants, and in firmly establishing the scientific importance of sound-changes in the study of classical literature. The men who achieved most in this field were Tai Chên (戴震, 1723-1777), Tuan Ju-ts'ai (段玉裁, 1748-1815), Chien Ta-hsin (錢大昕, 1728-1804), Kung Kuang-sun (孔廣森, 1752-1786) and Wang Nien-sun (王念孫, 1744-1832). Of the living scholars, we mention Mr. Chang Ping-lin (章炳麟) as the last of the great native scholars whose scientific attainments were not indebted to Occidental influence.

In the field of textual criticism, the scholars of the last dynasty also made remarkable progress. In opposition to the subjective interpretation of the Classics by the Sung scholars, they sought to perfect the technique of textual criticism. They encouraged the search for old manuscripts and early editions and quotations, and conscientiously compared and noted all textual variations. By means of this newly developed technique, numberless ancient texts have been made accessible to us in a readable form. It was not only applied to the textual rending of the Confucian Classics, but also to the works of non-Confucian thinkers and the more voluminous works of the Historians.

Higher Criticism, too, reached a high state of development during this period. Yen Jo-chu (閻若璩, 1636-1704) proved conclusively that the "old script" portion of the *Book of History* was forgery; and his younger contemporary Yao Chi-heng (姚際恆) wrote a book on "Spurious Books, Ancient and Modern" (古今僞書攷) in which many books were critically shown to be forgeries. When the famous *Four Imperial Libraries* were completed under the patronage of the Emperor Chien Lung, a descriptive and critical Catalogue was prepared by the collective labor of the best scholars of the editing college. In this work, a large number of books is registered as spurious and evidences are cited to substantiate every rejection. In the historical field, a very scientific historian arose in northern China in the person

of Ts'ui Shu (崔述, 1740-1816), who spent his whole life in proving that a vast amount of material for ancient history was of pure invention and utterly unreliable.

In the latter half of the eighteenth century, and in the nineteenth, there arose a new school of critics known as the "Modern Script" (今文) School. This name refers back to the Han dynasty (200 B. C. to 200 A. D.) when the Confucian Classics gradually made their appearance and received official recognition. Those which appeared first were in the "modern" and more conventionalized script, whereas the later arrivals were largely written in the "old" pictorial script. Chu Hsi, in the thirteenth century, in dealing with the *Book of History*, had already expressed doubts about the texts which, while traditionally believed to be old in script, were more modern in syntax and in content. But it was not until comparatively recent times that the accumulated doubts ripened into a formidable school. The last and probably the greatest representative of this school is Kang Yu-wei (康有爲), the leader of the political reform of 1898, who published, in 1891, a work entitled "The Spurious Classics of the Hsin Dynasty" (新學僞經考). Hsin (new) was the name of the dynasty founded by Wang Mang (A. D. 8-23). Kang Yu-wei maintained that the Classics originally in the old script were all forged by Liu Hsin (劉歆), the greatest scholar under Wang Mang, and he marshaled a host of historical evidences to prove his theory.

The Modern Script scholars, however, did not quite fully realize the revolutionary nature of their advocacies. The "old script Classics," which they reject, include the Mao (毛) text and commentary of the *Book of Odes*, the *Tso Commentary of the Chun Chiu*, the *Chou Li*, thirty-nine books of ancient *Li*, and half of the *Book of History*. All these have been the most readable and therefore most influential of the Confucian

Classics. In rejecting these as late forgeries, the "Modern Script" Confucianists have in reality undermined the most important scriptural foundations upon which Confucianism has rested for over fifteen centuries.

Without further burdening the reader with the details of the various movements and tendencies, I wish to point out the two factors which best characterize the Chinese Renaissance in its essentials. First of all, it must be pointed out that the whole period, from 1640 down, has been generally known as the Era of *Han Hsüeh* (漢學) or Han Learning. "Back to the Han scholars" was the prevailing war cry. Being dissatisfied with the subjective speculations of the Sung and Ming thinkers, they sought objective validity in the ancient dictionaries and commentaries, which, being largely of Han origin, furnish the primary meaning of the name *Han Hsüeh*. "The Han scholars," they would say, "were nearer to the ancients and therefore were more reliable than the Sung philosophers who lived a thousand years later." While the great minds of the age fully realized the shortcomings of the Hans and while their own scientific attainments were by far superior to the pedantic and often superstitious scholars of Han, they nevertheless acquiesced to the epithet of *Han Hsüeh* as an effective weapon in undermining the absolute authority of Sung philosophy. "Back to the Hans!" in that sense was equivalent to saying "Down with the Sung!" in this respect the Chinese Renaissance may be compared with the European Renaissance and Reformation. The revival of classical learning and art was only one form of expressing the revolt against the Middle Ages. The cry of the Reformation to go back to the Scriptures and to Jesus Christ also expresses a desire to seek a superior authority whereby to attack the absolute authority of the Church.

The second and still more valuable factor in the Chinese Renaissance is its scientific spirit. The absence of natural or physical science should not blind us to the presence of a truly scientific attitude which permeates the best works

of this remarkable period. The maxim of the age was: Base every conclusion on evidence. A textual reading, a semasiological suggestion, a grammatical interpretation, a denial or ascertaining of authorship or authenticity, must be presented together with internal, external, or collateral evidences. The method is genuinely inductive. Daring to doubt, bold in hypothesis, and scrupulously exacting in verification, the works of Ku Yien-wu, Tai Chên, Ts'ui Shu, Chien Ta-hsin, Wang Nien-sun and his son Wang Ying-chih (王引之) may be compared with the works of any scientific critic of the modern world. It is this pervading scientific spirit which constitutes the positive value of the Chinese Renaissance. Of the content of the 680 volumes of *Collected Notes and Commentaries on the Classics* (皇清經解正續編), which represent only a fraction of the patient labor of the Ch'ing scholars, much may be shown by a later age to be utterly useless; but the attitude and method of seeking and testing evidence will live long and may furnish us the only valuable heritage with which modern China may feel a little more at home in this wonderful world of modern science.<sup>1</sup>

## II

In the year 1849 occurred the death of Yuan Yuan, who was one of the few great scholars arising to political prominence and who had the vision and ability to organize scholars for what may be termed corporate work in scientific research. The next year (1850) saw the uprising of the Tai-ping rebellion which, begun in the southwest, rapidly swept over the country like a resistless cyclone and in the course of a few years conquered almost half of the provinces

<sup>1</sup> For a general review of the scholarly work of the period, read Liang Chi-chao: *Scholarship and Learning under the Ch'ing Dynasty* (清代學術概論 1921, Commercial Press, Shanghai).

For a special treatise on methodology, read Hu Shih: *The Scientific Method of the Ch'ing Scholars*, in Hu Shih's *Selected Writings*, pp. 205-246 (胡適文存 1921, The Oriental Book Company, Shanghai).

of China proper. The Rebellion lasted fifteen years (1850-1864) and devastated practically all the richest centers of culture and learning. The Yangtze delta, which had long been a most important center of material prosperity and cultural achievement, was destroyed almost beyond repair. Most of the best libraries, including the three imperial libraries where duplicate sets of the *Four Libraries* had been deposited, were burned down. Of the *Shu Yuan* or academies which trained the scholars and to which the best ones returned after middle age for retirement and quiet work, only a few were able to reopen after the great rebellion; and even the reestablished ones no longer retained the same spirit and vigor which so characterized the academies of the most productive periods.

By this time, a new period of national life had set in: China was no longer the isolated Empire of old. The Opium War took place in 1840; and disputes with Great Britain and France led to the war of 1860 when the allied troops entered Peking and burned down the Yuan Ming Yuan. A number of ports and cities were opened to foreign trade with special settlements and consular jurisdiction for foreign subjects in China. The establishment of a Foreign Office in 1861 marked the beginning of China's formal entry into international life; and in 1867 was founded the T'ung Wen Kuan (同文館) for training Chinese students in foreign languages.

But it was a degenerate China that was thus forced to face the modern imperialistic powers of the West. The country had just been devastated and weakened by a long and terrible civil war. The reigning race, the Manchus, had been conclusively proved to have lost its original vitality and vigor and become utterly incompetent in dealing with the great problems of the state. But the rising Chinese leaders were still too much under the influence of the old morality to take any drastic action in the direction of overthrowing the Manchu dynasty altogether. The central government was still in the hands of ignorant and intriguing princes, eunuchs

and old women. The infamous system of public sale of governmental offices which originated during the Rebellion as a war measure for raising revenue, was retained when peace had been restored. As public finance went from bad to worse, the sale of offices became a regular institution of the government. And the burden of the evil effects of this system fell heavily upon the shoulders of the people, and the venom of corruption poisoned the life of the whole nation.

It was such a weakened and demoralized nation that was thrown into the arena of imperialistic competition. The farsighted leaders of the younger generation, however, became anxious about the future of the country and began to preach words of warning to the government and to the people. Thus during the last two decades of the nineteenth century there were published a number of political pamphlets usually under some such title as "Warnings" (危言), in which political and financial reforms, military reorganization, mechanical improvements, radical changes in the civil examinations and other reforms were earnestly discussed and advocated. Half-heartedly, the government was forced by circumstances to put some of these measures into practice. Arsenals were established; a modern navy was in the process of construction. Under governmental as well as missionary auspices, books on mechanics, physics, chemistry, international law and foreign history and geography began to be translated into Chinese.

Under the pressure of a keen sense of national humiliation, the fashion of the intellectual world was undergoing a sudden change. Writers began to condemn the work of the *Han Hsüeh* scholars as of no practical value to the country. Examination papers in the academies were no longer confined to such subjects as the ancient pronunciation of certain words or the exact meaning of certain passages in the Classics. The more fashionable schools were examining students in the "new" or "western" learning which, as may be imagined, chiefly consisted in brief summaries of

European and American history and fragmentary gleanings in the physical sciences. The great defeat of China in the French War of 1894-5 and the still more crushing defeat in the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-5 combined to accelerate the realization that adoption of mere external weapons and equipments from the West without a thorough reorganization in the working of the government machinery was insufficient.

Thus, in 1898, the emperor Kuang Hsu was convinced of the necessity of a radical reform in the national government. He took into his confidence men like Kang Yu-wei, T'ang Ssu-t'ung, and Liang Chi-chao, who had been powerful advocates of the new policy. Peter the Great of Russia and Mikado Meiji of Japan were the ideals for the young emperor. In the course of a few months a number of important reforms were promulgated. But the reactionaries were greatly alarmed and they rallied around the empress-dowager Tsu Hsi, who finally imprisoned the emperor and put to death six of the leaders of the reform movement. Kang Yu-wei and Liang Chi-chao, who succeeded in making their escape, left the country in exile.

The reform movement of 1898, short-lived as it was, had its far-reaching effects. During the whole period of three hundred years since the Tung Lin and Fu Shê of the last years of Ming, no political movement had ever produced such a nation-wide stir among the intellectual class of China. The exiled leaders continued to exert their tremendous influence over the younger generation through their popular writings published in Japan. In 1898, Yen Fu's (嚴復) translation of Huxley's *Evolution and Ethics* appeared and went through numerous editions. The doctrines of struggle for existence and survival of the fittest caught the imagination of the Chinese literati and soon became proverbial expressions in the mouths of orators and in the writings of journalists. Yen Fu also translated John Stuart Mill's *On Liberty* and *Logic*, Spencer's *Study of Sociology* and Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*. These translations served to introduce China to

the modern *thought* of the West. But it was only a very feeble beginning, and these works, save their popular aspects, were little understood by the general public.

The reactionaries in government who had been responsible for the *coup d'état* of 1898, now wished to clear the country of all Occidental influence and to revenge the long series of national humiliations since the Opium War. Thus was enacted the acrobatic tragedy of the Boxers in 1900 under genuine imperial patronage. The result of the Boxer War placed upon the Chinese people the burden of a very heavy indemnity and so disgraced the nation that, for many years since, China was no longer regarded as a civilized member in the family of nations.

The wounds of 1900 had hardly ceased to smart when the Russo-Japanese War broke out in 1904. In the complete victory of Japan over Russia was writ large the lesson that, by thorough modernization, a small Oriental nation could resist and even defeat the aggressive forces of a great empire of Europe. The absolute efficacy of modernization was proved beyond any doubt. And thousands of Chinese students flocked to the schools of Japan to seek the light that was hoped to work similar miracles in China.

The cry for reforms was no longer to be resisted. In 1902, the government had decreed that "all *shu yuan* in the provincial capitals be changed into colleges; those in the prefects, into middle schools; and those in the counties, into primary schools." It had also been decreed in 1902 and in 1903 to send students to study abroad. In 1903, the strict form of "eight-limbed" composition hitherto required in all literary examinations, had been replaced by the freer forms of essay-writing. At the close of the Russo-Japanese War, the literary examinations were abolished altogether. In the same year (1905), an imperial commission, composed of princes and high officials, was sent to study the forms of constitutional government in Europe and America. In 1908, the government proclaimed a plan, designating a number of



years as a preparatory period for constitutional government. The provincial assemblies were opened in 1909, and the Tzu Cheng Yuan (資政院), which was to be the forerunner of the future parliament, was opened in 1910.

The change was desirable. But it did not come gradually, nor did it come with conscious planning. For over half a century there was only blind and arrogant resistance. Then, all of a sudden, the attitude of blind and arrogant resistance was replaced by an attitude of blind and slavish imitation! Even the advocates of the reforms did not understand what the change really meant. Nor did they know the best way to effect the transition. We may quote the words of Mr. Liang Chi-chao himself written in 1922:

“Ever since the great defeat in the Sino-Japanese War, the sober minds were awakened to the grave danger of the nation as if suddenly awakened from a dream by a thunderclap. They thought that China’s weakness and decay were chiefly due to her defective political organization. They therefore hoisted the banner of political reform and started to stir up the public for its support. The vanguards were Kang Yu-wei and myself,—men who had had a fairly good foundation in Chinese learning but who knew not a single word in the foreign languages. They could not tell people *what* the foreign culture was, or *how* to learn it. They could only cry out every day reminding the people that the old Chinese learning was insufficient, and that there were many fine things in the foreign civilization that we must learn.” (“In the Past Fifty Years,” Part II, p. 3.)

If this statement correctly describes the mental state of the two greatest intellectual leaders of the age, how much more true will it be of the attitude of the general public?

Thus was modernization of China blindly accepted and most superficially effected. The reformers rightly attacked the uselessness of the *shu yuan*, but they failed to appreciate the importance of the spirit and method of self-study that

was the chief characteristic of the best academies. In their blindness, they thought that a *shu yuan* was after all a *shu yuan*, but not a school which the Japanese had translated as *hsüeh tang* and which was supposed to consist in crowded classrooms where the teacher writes on the blackboard and the pupils learn in well-arranged rows of benches! So all *shu yuan* were abolished in favor of this type of *hsüeh tang*!

Again, the reformers rightly attacked the abuses of the system of literary examinations, but they failed to see the permanent value of the idea that public offices must be held by men whose general fitness has been tested in examinations. In their blindness, they overthrew the system of examination for civil service, at the very time when the whole civilized world was trying hard to extend it as far as possible!

Let these stand as two concrete examples of the so-called modernization of China in the first decade of the new century. Needless to say, such a superficial change brought the nation no nearer to its salvation. The ministries in the government now bore new names, but the personnel remained the same. The literary examinations were abolished, but public sale of offices went on and the men who had paid for their offices remained in power. New schools were apparently growing in number, but there was not one single center for advanced scientific and cultural education; no place for training new leaders. The old scholars, who had come to recognize the superior utility of the applied sciences and political organization, were still totally ignorant of the intellectual background, as well as the finer aspects of Western civilization. The young men sent to study abroad came back either so completely "de-nationalized" or so narrowly specialized in technical training that they were absolutely helpless in influencing the thought of the nation. Of the European-educated students of the earlier period, only two or three may be said to have made some contribution to the building up of a new culture. One was Yen Fu, whose

translations we have already referred to; the other was Ma Chien-chung (馬建忠), whose researches in the grammar of the Chinese language are still of great help to modern students working in that science.

Of the Chinese students educated in Japan, very few paid attention to the study of the cultural and artistic aspects of that country. Most of them regarded Japan as a short cut to the acquisition of a superficial knowledge of European civilization; and all of them went there with a deep-rooted prejudice that Japan had no culture of her own which was worth studying. Moreover, a number of Chinese students went to Japan, not for an opportunity to study, but for political reasons, Tokyo being then the most important center of Chinese revolutionary activities. The vast majority of them, however, was there seeking the easiest way to get a diploma from some private college of low standing which might serve them as a means of advancement in official life. No wonder that thousands of Chinese students returned to China with no real knowledge either of European culture or of the cultural achievements of Japan herself.

In short, the separation of the old from the new was complete. Superficial differences were seized upon, while all basic unity, all common ground was blindly ignored. All blind imitation, and no rational appreciation or critical judgment! Modernization had come to the externals and nonessentials, but the finer phases of modern civilization remained a closed book to the Chinese public, and the thoughts and beliefs of the nation were still *fundamentally* unchanged after fifty years of national catastrophe and twenty years of intellectual unrest and agitation.

### III

Three things conspired to make possible a new period of Chinese Renaissance. The first was the Chinese Revolution of 1911, the second was the return of the American portion of the Boxer indemnity and its exclusive use for educating Chinese students in the United States, and the third was the Great War of 1914-18. The success of the Revolution gave

the Chinese people a sense of self-confidence, while its failures in the political aspects forced a number of leaders to turn attention to social and intellectual problems. The return of the American indemnity made it possible to bring a large number of young Chinese into direct contact with the scientific, social, and historical background of modern civilization. The Great War furnished China with a period of breathing space during which native industries were gradually developed, relative prosperity was restored in spite of political disturbances, and many social and intellectual problems hitherto untouched were one by one brought to the front.

Ever since 1885, China had been under the nightmare of international partition. The great Powers had long mapped out their respective spheres of influence, and along the long coast there were a series of leased territories and foreign settlements. The Chinese navy was completely destroyed in the Sino-Japanese War, and the strength of the army was a matter of uncertainty. The fear of foreign intervention and partition paralyzed almost every radical step for political reform. The strongest argument against the anti-Manchu revolution was the danger of inviting international interference and ultimate domination. But the success of the Chinese Revolution in 1911 swept away much of this national timidity. It not only proved the ability of the Chinese people to shake off the yoke of an alien race which had conquered them for two hundred seventy years; it not only showed the whole world that the Chinese nation was after all capable of loving liberty and of fighting for it; but it also restored to the Chinese people the sense of national self-confidence which many years of national humiliation had deprived them of. It is true that the short duration of the revolution and the hastily effected union of the South with the North were largely due to the feeling that prolongation of the civil war might bring about armed intervention by the foreign powers, but the speedy recognition of the republican government by the powers and the sudden change of public opinion abroad toward China were most

encouraging to the Chinese people. The recognition of the Chinese Republic was unconsciously interpreted as a recognition of the national self-consciousness of the Chinese people.

This feeling of national self-confidence was reassured during the five years of the Great War. The turning of the attention of the European powers toward the war in Europe greatly relieved the tension of the international situation in the Far East; and the effort of both Germany and the Allies in courting China to secure her neutrality or participation in the war, further increased this sense of national confidence. After all there was sufficient potential power in China to be thus courted! Even in those gloomy days of the Sino-Japanese negotiations of 1915, China never lost her newly-recovered sense of composure. And the enemy realized it, too. For, it is now known, when Japan was pressing her Twenty-one Demands, her Elder Statesmen questioned the General Staff as to the possibility of subjugating China by force, and the answer was that it would take the whole Japanese army ten years to pacify China in the face of popular uprising and resistance.

The most important contribution of the Great War to Chinese national life, however, was its stimulus to the development of native industry. The special demands of the war, the lack of shipping facilities for international trade, the cessation of a number of industries abroad, the devoting of European and American factories to war industries,—all these conditions favored the development of Chinese industries. In spite of the continuous political disturbances, a number of native industries was prospering when the war ceased in 1918. Cotton may be cited as the most notable example. Although the sudden fluctuation in international exchange after the war has ruined no small number of Chinese merchants, we may still say that China came out of the war more prosperous and more thoroughly industrialized than ever.

Had political conditions been more favorable, China could have made better use of the occasion of the European War for the elevation of her position in international life. Unfortunately, Chinese politics went from bad to worse. In 1911, the people were ready for a racial revolution that is, for overthrowing the Manchu dynasty. But they were ill prepared for a thorough change from the monarchic to a republican form of government. The revolution lasted only a few months, and the time was too short for new leaders to acquire sufficient prominence to replace the old ones. Although the people had had some experience in local self-government on a small scale, they were totally incapable of immediate adaptation to a democratic system for an immense population. The old and reactionary forces soon regained complete control of the country, and the new political leaders, being inexperienced and untried, gradually lost their command of public confidence through their blunders. The attempt of Yuan Shih-kai to establish a monarchy failed; but the nation which showed itself faithful to the republic by its resistance to the monarchical movement, was incapable of making it a real democracy. They fought and overthrew a would-be emperor, but they allowed many ignorant militarists to become provincial kings without the royal title! The good and honest citizens sat at home and sighed at the corruption and misrule in the country, while the unscrupulous politicians organized powerful cliques and controlled local and central governments.

The failures in the effort to bring about good and efficient government after the nominal establishment of the Republic forced some leaders to turn their attention to other problems not immediately connected with politics. They were tired of real politics and were looking around to find some more basic factors which might be made the new cornerstones for a new political order. Thus, Huang Yuan-yung, one of the best publicists of the day, who had spent

many years in political activities, wrote these repentant words just before he left the country in 1915:

"In my humble opinion, politics is in such confusion that I am at a loss to know what to talk about. Ideal schemes will have to be buried for future generations to unearth. . . . As to fundamental salvation, I believe its beginning must be sought in the promotion of a new literature. In short, we must endeavor to bring Chinese thought into direct contact with the contemporary thought of the world, thereby to accelerate its radical awakening. And we must see to it that the basic ideals of the world thought must be related to the life of the average man. The method seems to consist in using simple and simplified language and literature for wide dissemination of ideas among the people. Have we not seen that historians regard the Renaissance as the foundation of the overthrow of medievalism in Europe?" (Letter to Chang Shih-chao, published in *The Tiger*, Vol. I, No. 10.)

The recipient of this letter, who was also one of the leading publicists of the time, published it with a reply in which he pointed out that "all social reforms must presuppose a certain level of political stability and orderliness, and the promotion of a new literature cannot be an exception." In the same year Huang Yuan-yung was assassinated in San Francisco; and in the following year Mr. Chang Shih-chao, who would not desert politics for the promotion of new literature, took a prominent part in the campaign which finally thwarted the monarchical movement and caused the death of Yuan Shih-kai. But the downfall of Yuan Shih-kai did not bring the country nearer to the level of political stability and order as had been expected; nor did it remove all the evil forces which Yuan Shih-kai had planted throughout the country, and which soon ran wild and plunged the nation into disunion and civil strife lasting to the present day.

About the time when the above-quoted letter was written, a few Chinese students in the American universities were carrying on a serious controversy on the problem of the Chinese language. One party to the controversy held that the literary or classical language of China was a dead or half dead language and that, as such, it was no longer capable of being the medium for producing a living literature. Moreover, the spoken language (*pei hua*) in which all the great novels were written, was regarded by this group of young men as full of promise as the only medium of the future literature of China. The other party regarded these ideas as outrageously radical and tried to defend the classical language on the ground that it would be a great pity to discard the vast amount of literature written in it, that it was the only language understood by all educated people throughout the country irrespective of their own local dialects, and that, being the language of the prose writers and poets, it was far more beautiful than the vulgar language of the people which, while it might be profitably employed in writing popular novels, could never be expected to be the language of poetry and polished prose.

So the controversy went on for some time in America and on the first day of the year 1917 was published the first declaration of what is now known as the Chinese Literary Revolution. It consisted of one article by myself on "Some Suggestions for the Reform of Chinese Literature," which was followed by an article on "A Revolution in Literature" by Mr. Chen Tu-shiu, editor of *The Youth*, a monthly magazine in which my article was published. In both of these articles, the classical language was openly declared to have outlived its usefulness and have been the fundamental cause of the utter poverty of literary masterpieces during the past twenty centuries. In both, the *pei hua* was shown to be the legitimate heir to the classical language; and the few great writers, who had had the inspiration to produce their novels and dramas in the *pei hua*, but whose works, in spite of their



immense popularity, had long been ignored by the literati, were re-evaluated and ranked higher above the aristocratic literature written in the unnatural medium of the dead classical language.

Thus was begun the Chinese Literary Revolution. As it was the most characteristic as well as the most successful phase of the Chinese Renaissance, we shall consider this movement in greater detail before we take up the other aspects of the Renaissance.

In order to appreciate the full significance of the literary revolution in China, the reader will do well by recalling the history of the rise of the national languages of modern Europe. Hardly five centuries have passed since Latin was the recognized literary language of whole Europe. Italy was the first to revolt. Dante, Petrarch (in his youthful days), and Boccaccio produced their best works in the dialect of Tuscany, and the popularity of their writings succeeded in finally making the Tuscan dialect the national language of the Italian people. By that time, the dialect of Paris was fast becoming the official language of France. In 1539, Francis I ordered that all public documents should be in the French of Paris, though it was still foreign to nearly half of the population in the kingdom. In the middle of the sixteenth century, there arose the group of French poets known as the *Pléiade*, who consciously advocated the use of the French language as a means of poetic expression. Rabelais and Montaigne achieved an even greater success in prose. Thus by the end of the sixteenth century the French of Paris became the undisputed national language of France.

The case of modern English, being more similar to that of modern Chinese, is all the more instructive. As late as the latter part of the fourteenth century, there were three main dialects competing for supremacy in England. The Southern dialect, spoken south of the Thames, was the most conservative, being full of old forms and inflections. The Northern dialect, which extended from the Humber to Aber-

deen, was, owing to the Danish settlements, undergoing such rapid and radical changes that it became almost an entirely new language. Between these two extremes stood the Midland dialect, which was more or less comprehensible to the speakers of both dialects. This Midland dialect, being the language of London and of the two great universities, soon came to be adopted as the standard speech. Chaucer, the greatest poet of the fourteenth century, wrote his poetry in this dialect; and his great contemporary, Wycliffe, too, used it in his English translations of the Bible. The immense popularity of their writings and the introduction of the printing press in the following century made the Midland dialect the undisputed national tongue of England.

The lesson taught by such recent history seems to have been forgotten by those who now look upon the Chinese literary revolution with disfavor and suspicion. But a little unbiased reflection and historical study will readily lead us to the conclusion that what is now called the literary revolution is no more than a culminating stage in a long process of historical evolution.

The story is indeed a long one, but the salient facts are simple. As early as the second century B. C., the classical language had already become unintelligible to the people. Thus about the year 120 B. C., in a memorial to the emperor, Premier Kung-sun Hung said: "The imperial edicts and laws that have been proclaimed, . . . while they are most elegantly worded and contain benevolent instructions, are not generally understood by the public officers who are too inadequately educated to explain these to the people." In order to meet this most serious difficulty the government hit upon a system under which public offices were conferred upon those who had studied the classic writings. This system, which was later perfected into the great system of literary examinations, has succeeded in maintaining to this day the supremacy of the classical language, which had become unintelligible to the public officers over two thousand years ago.

But no governmental power, however great, can prevent language from undergoing the inevitable processes of phonetical change and grammatical leveling gradually and unconsciously brought about by the common sense of the people. In China, these processes by a stroke of good fortune have been allowed to go on unimpeded and uninterfered with by the literary class which was busily occupied with the task of mastering the subtleties of the dead classical language. For a long period of over twenty centuries, the dialects have been permitted to keep on changing and modifying until some of the dialects have become as distinct from the classical language as any two cognate languages can possibly be different from each other. As in the case of the English dialects, the dialects of northern China, owing to the influence of numerous barbarian conquests and settlements, have undergone the most radical changes both in pronunciation and intonation and in grammar. It is the Northern and Middle dialects, generally classed as the "Mandarin dialects," which now form the *kuo yu*, or national language of China.

While conservative Chinese scholars still look down upon the living spoken language as the degraded jargon of the vulgar and the illiterate, the student of comparative languages can easily convince himself that the living national tongue is the culmination of over twenty centuries of linguistic revision and reform, and is consequently by far superior to the long dead classical language. I have elsewhere tried to prove this point by numerous illustrations,<sup>1</sup> but the limitations of this paper do not allow me to take up a subject of such technical nature. So I shall confine myself to the development of literature in the spoken language.

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<sup>1</sup>Hu Shih, *Selected Writings*, Vol. III., pp. 1-80. Also Hu Shih, *The National Language of China*, in a volume published by the American University Club of Shanghai.

The first barbarization of northern China, which took place during the fourth, fifth, and sixth centuries A. D., and its concomitant event of the shift of the center of Chinese civilization to southern China—these two factors combined to produce a large number of popular poems both in the North and in the South. The new races in the North made their heroic and warlike songs, but the popular literature of the southern peoples chiefly consisted in little lyrics of love. The unmistakable beauty and simplicity of these songs of the people gradually came to be appreciated by the literary men of the time and they soon became models of poetic composition under the general name of *Ku yo fu*, or Old Songs. In this way the literature of the literati was influenced by the poetry of the people, and the greatness of the poetry of the Tang dynasty (620–900) owes much to the influence of the popular songs of the pre-Tang period. It is safe to say that the best poems of Tang are written either in the popular tongue or in a style nearest to it. It is said of Po Chu-I, the greatest poet of the mid-Tang period, that his poems were often shown to an old woman, whose inability to understand a certain poem would cause its rejection or revision.

It was also under the Tang dynasty that vulgar prose first arose. The great teachers of the Chian or Zen School of Buddhism first used it in preaching and recording sayings and discourses. The style proved to be so effective in philosophical writings that the Neo-Confucian philosophers of the Sung dynasty and later dynasties had to adopt it in most of their philosophical discussions.

Meanwhile northern China was undergoing a second period of barbarization, which began in the tenth century and lasted until the latter part of the fourteenth. The Kitan Tartars were conquered by the Nuchen Tartars, who in turn were conquered by the Mongols. The latter people, in the year 1239, succeeded in subjugating the whole of China. While these barbarian conquests were politically and socially disastrous to the Chinese people, it cannot be denied that

they have had immense beneficial effects upon the language and literature of the people. That the language was barbarized can be easily seen in the numerous edicts and other public documents of the Mongol dynasty, which have been preserved to us and which were all written in terribly barbarized Chinese, in a style which is apparently Mongol syntax clothed in Chinese characters.

It was during this period of barbarian occupation that the great dramas were produced. The literary examinations were suspended for nearly eighty years (1237-1313); the authority of the classical language and literature was swept away. Even the greatest geniuses now condescended to write plays for the entertainment of the people. And some of the Yuan dramas were written by the members of the lowest stratum of society. This accounts for the simplicity in the content and style of the dramas of that period.

And then the necessity of educating the barbarian and barbarized population in the great Chinese tradition gave rise to a class of prose literature known as the *yen yi*, or popular histories. These narratives soon developed into historical novels and then into novels of all kinds. For centuries it has been thought that the several great novels of unknown authorship were written under the Mongol dynasty, but my own researches have convinced me that the novel only reached its infantile stage in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries and that such novels as *San Kuo Chih*, *Shui Hu Chuan*, *Hsi You Chi* had only crude origins in the Mongol period and went through a series of collective and individual revisions until they appeared in their finished form in the sixteenth century.

With the exit of the Mongol conquerors and with the institution of a new and more rigid system of literary examinations under the Ming dynasty (1368-1644), the authority of the classical tradition was gradually restored. The literati took hold of the dramas and made them classical and therefore unintelligible to the mass of the people. Poetry and prose

both tended to a classical revival. The cries of the day were, "Back to Tang and Sung," and "Back to the pre-Tang periods." But the novel alone remained uncontaminated by the reactionary influences and continued to develop itself. While official recognition and literary honors continued to be eagerly coveted by the literary class, the immense popularity of the novels was also a sufficiently powerful inducement to tempt gifted authors to undertake this despised branch of literature. It is significant to note that practically all the novels written under the Ming dynasty were anonymous and that it was not until the Manchu dynasty that authors allowed real names to be attached to novels.

The last four centuries have been very productive in novels. Of the hundreds of novels that have been preserved and are being reprinted in numberless cheap editions, many are of little or no literary value. But the best of them, such as the *Shui Hu Chuan*, *Hsi You Chi*, *Ju Lin Wai Shi* (*The Literati*), *Hung Lou Mung* (*Dream of the Red Chamber*), and a few others, can certainly be ranked among the world's greatest masterpieces. Near the end of the Manchu dynasty, a number of social novels were produced, modeled more or less after the fashion of *The Literati*, a realistic and satirical novel written in the middle of the eighteenth century. Aside from the effects of their outspoken attacks on Chinese officialdom, these modern novels are significant in the fact that, while they were all written in the Mandarin dialect, their authors were all southerners to whom the northern and middle dialects were not at all native. This fact shows the tremendous educative effects of the great novels which have in the course of a few centuries succeeded in standardizing the national language and have been its greatest teachers and propagandists.

From the above account, it is clear that spoken Chinese as represented by the Mandarin dialects is well qualified to become the national language of China. In the first place, it is the most widely spoken language in the country. In the

second place it has produced a vast amount of literature, a literature more extensive and varied than any modern European language ever possessed at the time of its establishment as a national language. It seems incredible that a language of such vitality and currency should have to wait so long before it was ever thought of as a possible substitute for the long dead classical language. But the explanation is really simple. The authority of the classical language and literature has been truly too great to be easily overcome. This authority became truly formidable when it was enforced by the power of a long united empire and supported by a fairly extensive system of education, the sole object of which has been to win official honor and recognition on the strength of the ability to read and write in the classical language.

Moreover, there was lacking in the history of spoken Chinese one important factor without which the authority of the classical language could never be destroyed. That important factor is a conscious and frank recognition of the fact that the classical language is a dead language and as such is disqualified to continue as the national language of a modern nation. Dante not only wrote in the vulgar tongue, but also defended it in his treatise *De vulgari eloquentia*. Boccaccio, too, was a conscious defender of the language he employed as literary medium. In France, the Pléiade were also conscious advocates of the French language; indeed, Du Bellay, one of the poets who formed the Pléiade, wrote *La défense et illustration de la langue française*, in which he asserted the right of the French language to stand as a medium of poetic expression. It is this element of conscious advocacy that was lacking in the case of spoken Chinese. There were large numbers of writers who were in one way or another attracted by the vulgar tongue and wrote in it. There were none, however, who openly questioned the supreme authority of the classical language or who consciously defended the living tongue as the only legitimate medium of

literary composition. And it is this absence of an articulate movement which has made it possible for the dead language to reign supreme two thousand years after its death.

What the recent literary revolution did was to supply this very factor which was lacking in the long history of the living tongue, and to openly declare that the classical language has been long dead and that the *pei hua*, which has been the literary medium for many centuries, is and will be the only proper and effective means of literary expression in verse as well as in prose. "No dead language can produce a living literature," was the war cry of the literary revolution. Its constructive policy is summed up in the motto, "Produce literature in the national language, and you shall have a national language of literary worth."<sup>1</sup> In 1916, the present writer made a resolution never to write any poetry except in the spoken language. The first public declaration of the revolution was published on the first day of the year 1917. The controversy went on for two years; after that, opposition gradually died down. Since the summer of 1919, the *pei hua* has spread far and wide. In 1920, the Ministry of Education issued an order to the effect that, beginning with the fall opening of that year, the national language should be taught in the first two grades of the primary school. In the course of a few years, all the grades in the primary schools will be using the living tongue in the place of the classical. This change has of necessity affected the middle and normal schools where the primary teachers are trained, and these higher schools are anticipating the coming change by voluntarily adopting texts in the vulgate. Most of the recent publications have been in the vulgate. The newspapers and periodicals have in most cases ceased to publish poems in the classical language, and "news poem" in spoken Chinese are taking their places. It is safe to say that the controversial

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<sup>1</sup>For the war literature of the literary revolution, see Hu Shih, *Selected Writings*, Vol. I., pp. 1-320.



period is now almost over, and the era of constructive and creative work is before us.

The moral of this easy success of the literary revolution is obvious. It was not the work of any individual or individuals that has brought about its success. The time has long been ripe for this revolution; two thousand years of collective effort in linguistic revision and ten centuries of literary activity in the living tongue—these are the real factors which have made such a rapid success possible. The common sense of our people has for twenty centuries been unconsciously but steadily and incessantly preparing for this day. The literary revolution of the last five years is no more than a culmination of twenty centuries of historical evolution. All unconscious processes of natural evolution are of necessity very slow and wasteful. Once these processes are made conscious and articulate, intelligent control and experimentation become possible, the work of many centuries may be telescoped into a few years, and an easy success greets those advocates who are in reality, to use a classical phrase, "getting the credit which properly belongs to Nature."

#### IV

The monthly magazine, *The New Youth*, (新青年) started in September, 1915, was first edited by Mr. Chen Tu-shiu, who later became the dean of the College of Letters at the National University of Peking. Meanwhile the magazine had ceased publication during the political troubles of 1917. In 1918, *The New Youth* reappeared under the joint editorship of six of the professors of the University. For two years (1917-18) this periodical was the sole fighter on the battlefield of literary and intellectual revolution. In December, 1918, Mr. Chen started *The Weekly Review* (每週評論) which took up political questions and soon became the center of liberal opinion on politics. At the same time, Mr. Fu Ssu-nien (傅斯年) and other students of the National University

started a monthly magazine under the Chinese title *Hsin Chao* (新潮), which literally means the New Tide. The founders, however, after a serious consideration, decided to adopt "The Renaissance" as its English title. *The Renaissance*, though a student magazine, surprised the reading public by its maturity in thinking and fresh vigor in style. These three organs, *The New Youth*, *The Weekly Review*, and *The Renaissance*, all published in the spoken language, worked together for a common cause, which may be phrased as a critical evaluation of the old civilization of China and a critical introduction of new ideas and ideals from the West.

In 1919, the new movement began to receive sympathetic responses as well as strong opposition from all quarters. Opposition grew so strong that Mr. Chen Tu-shiu thought it wise to resign his deanship in order to save the National University from violent and abusive attacks that were being heaped upon it. There were also attempts to impeach the Chancellor of the University and expel some of the professors connected with the new movement, but none of these attempts succeeded when the University suddenly rose to the position of national leadership through the so-called "May Fourth" Movement.

When the news of the complete success of the Japanese delegation at the Peace Conference in Paris reached China, the whole country was inflamed to indignation. On May fourth, the students of Peking, after a mass meeting, paraded the streets and ended in a demonstration at the residence of the pro-Japanese Minister, Tsao Ju-lin. When they learned that a number of pro-Japanese officials were feasting there, they broke into the house, beat and heavily wounded Chang Chung-hsiang, then Minister to Tokyo, and set the house on fire. The arrest of a number of University students and the resignation of Chancellor Tsai Yuan-pei of the University led to popular protests and demonstrations throughout the country. Thousands of telegrams flooded to Paris urging the Chinese Delegates not to sign the Peace

Treaty. And an effective boycott against Japanese goods was enforced by the students in all cities and towns. The center of the struggle was in Peking where thousands of students made speeches in the streets and obstructed traffic, and on June third, more than a thousand students were arrested and imprisoned in the Law College of the National University, which was besieged by governmental troops and made into a temporary prison. This led to the general strike of all shops in Shanghai and elsewhere which was called off when the government at last yielded in dismissing three of the most notorious pro-Japanese ministers.

This struggle, which lasted several months, made the National University exceedingly popular throughout the country, and the few new publications conducted by its professors and students were widely read and discussed. Realizing the importance of the literary and intellectual revolution already begun by the National University, the two great political parties—the Kuomin Tang and the Chingpu Tang—now cast their lot with the new movements and rivaled each other in converting their party organs into propaganda for what they understood as the “New Culture Movement” (新文化運動). Hundreds of tiny periodicals, modeled after the one-sheet form of the *Weekly Review*, were published by student organizations in various places, and practically all of them were in the spoken language or *pei hua*. The new form of writing was recognized as most convenient and suitable to the strong desire for expression which was quite natural in an age of general unrest. Thus the literary revolution which we had expected to succeed in about twenty years was by an accident spread with a rapidity far exceeding the most ambitious expectations of its originators.

The movement is no longer confined to the literary reforms. Once the momentum is started, its scope gradually extends till it now includes all shades of radicalism, all forms of faddism, and all kinds of “experiments in the new life.”

In the field of literature, realism, naturalism, symbolism, and neo-romanticism all find enthusiastic advocates. In philosophy, while pragmatism of the Dewey school seems to exert greater influence in the educational institutions, Russell, Bergson, Eucken, and other contemporary philosophers are also read and accepted in certain quarters. In politics, we find admirers of Soviet Russia, moderate Socialists, Anarchists, as well as the liberals who call themselves Eunarchists (a word of my own coinage, meaning advocates of the principle of good government). Of the social movements, we may mention the revolt against the old family system, the emancipation of women, the rebellion against the old procedure of betrothal and marriage and the advocacies of free love. In the educational world, there has grown up a number of experimental schools in which new educational theories are being tested and reforms are tried. In the field of scholarly endeavor, we find two distinct tendencies: on one hand, there is a conscious effort to introduce into China Western science, philosophy, and literature; on the other hand, there are scholars seeking to apply the modern scientific methods of research to the work of systematizing the old learning of China. This latter phase of the new movement, now known as the work of "systematization of the national heritage" (整理國故), is a revival or rebirth of that spirit of criticism and research which animated the works of the *Han* *Hsüeh* scholars of the last three centuries.

Multifarious as these movements may seem, we may discern certain general characteristics which permeate and unite them into one great national movement. This general movement has been variously named: it is sometimes called "The New Culture Movement" after a recent fashion among Japanese intellectuals in speculating about *Kultur* and its philosophy; by others, it is termed "The New Thought Movement" because of the different types of philosophical influence that enter into its formation. To me, the whole movement seems to be best characterized in the words of

Nietzsche as a movement for "a transvaluation of all values." All traditional values are now being judged from a new standpoint and with new standards. From the small feet and concubinage to Confucianism and Christianity, nothing is free from this new process of transvaluation. Some of the judgments may be too subjective or too superficial; others may be too harsh or unhistorical. All the same, the existence of the evaluating attitude cannot be denied.

Many critics have pointed to the anti-Christian and anti-religion movements of last year as evidences of the superficiality of the young leaders of China. It is true that much of the criticism uttered at the time was guilty of lacking historical perspective; yet it may be asked, has Christianity ever been so seriously discussed and examined by the Chinese intellectual class during the whole period of three hundred years of its introduction into China? If I were a Christian, I would certainly feel insulted at the thought Christianity should remain unnoticed by the intelligensia of modern China!

At the present moment the whole movement is still in the stage of largely destructive criticism. The cry of revolt is heard everywhere. Tradition is often thrown overboard, authority is cast aside, old beliefs are being undermined. The young men and women are suffering bitterly in this age of transition. Groping in the dark for some light that would lead them to their hearts' desire, they only find obstruction from all sources and no general formula that would serve as panacea for all distressing problems. Many fly from their homes in the hope to rid themselves of the oppressive burdens of family or ties of undesired marriage. When it was known that living in France after the war was so cheap that students could easily earn a living while carrying on their studies, thousands of young men and women offered to go, and many went without knowing a single word of French and without any experience for manual labor. The sudden change of post-bellum conditions in France led hundreds of

them into all kinds of misery and suffering; but the cry of "hard labor and cheap studying" still attracts many a young man dissatisfied with the existing environment at home.

In the writings of the younger generation, it is true, there is a great deal of cheap iconoclasm and blind faddism. All that is inevitable. The saner and more foresighted leaders are trying to inculcate into the people what they regard as the only safeguard against these dangers, namely, the historical and evolutionary point of view and a truly scientific attitude of life. But that requires education and education is always a slow process, too slow for impulsive souls to wait.

In the educational field, while the new spirit manifests itself in numerous experimental schools and in the serious introduction of new educational theories and practices, the general tendency to revolt and criticism has also caused no small trouble to incompetent teachers and administrators. According to a recent estimate, there were 125 cases of school troubles in the year 1922 reported in three of the leading newspapers! Of course, in many of these cases the students were in the wrong; but when we consider the financial difficulty which hampers the development of the educational institutions everywhere and the large number of job-hunters that are still occupying teaching positions, we cannot help thinking that the spirit of student revolt now developing may be after all one of the natural checks to incompetency, inefficiency, and maladministration in the schools.

Of the constructive phase of the movement, very little can be said at the present time. The time has been too short and the outbreak too sudden for any tangible results to be safely estimated. All we can say is that there is a Chinese Renaissance and that a new China is being born. There is no longer mere modernization of externals and nonessentials, but a great change is coming over the whole fabric of national life. The attitude of criticism has undermined all old beliefs

and ideals, and new ideas and ideals are flooding in for comparison and selection. Old institutions are being critically examined, and antiquity and authority are no longer sufficient justifications for the existence of any custom or institution. The vast amount of old tradition and learning is being systematically worked over with modern methodology of historical research. The history of thought is being rewritten, and Confucianism, understood in its historical setting, is now recognized as only one of the numerous schools of thought, and not *the* all-embracing religion as we were once made to believe. The history of language and literature is also studied anew, and we are beginning to realize that the classical literature which has engaged the attention of the classical literati for thousands of years was not the only literature which the artistic genius of the Chinese people has produced, and that the genius of the people has been working steadily and unceasingly at the revision and gradual perfection of the living tongue with which they, the real makers of literature, have given us their great songs, stories, and dramas. Folk songs in all dialects are being collected under the auspices of the National University of Peking and their literary and sociological value is being gradually appreciated. Novels that were despised by the literati are now being systematically studied and the history of their evolution is being worked out by various scholars. It is no slavish worship of the Western civilization that we are witnessing, but the rebirth of an old civilization under the influence of a new impulse and a new attitude which direct contact with the ideas and methods of the modern world has produced.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Being a co-worker in some of these movements, I have not painted them as rosily as some more sympathetic critics have done. For more eulogistic treatises, read Ph. de Vargas: *Some Elements in the Chinese Renaissance*, in the *New China Review*, Shanghai, April and June, 1922; and T. T. Lew, *China's Renaissance in China To-day*, published by the Student Christian Movement, London, 1922.

**SCIENTIFIC MEASUREMENT AND  
RELATED STUDIES IN  
CHINESE EDUCATION**

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## FOREWORD

The coming of Dr. McCall to China as the Director of Psychological Research in the National Association for the Advancement of Education has given to the movement of tests and measurements in China a center of impulse and guidance that has already yielded unexpected results. This report is an account of the attitude and methods he adopted in his careful adjustment to the Chinese situation, and will also serve as a clear indication of the scientific temper that the movement in its present stage of development in China has had the good fortune to maintain.

Only beginnings are being made. But we are well satisfied with the fact that seeds of the most careful selection have been spread. As to whether the unsettled educational practice in China will prove a field readily prepared for the seeds of statistical control, only time can tell.

We can voice the unanimous satisfaction of all who are interested in education in China that Dr. McCall has made a most significant contribution to Chinese education and has endowed it with an objective bent that is extremely promising in lasting results.

CHANG PENG-CHEN  
(P. C. CHANG.)



## SCIENTIFIC MEASUREMENT AND RELATED STUDIES IN CHINESE EDUCATION

Dr. Paul Monroe of Teachers College, Columbia University came to China in the year 1921-1922 to represent American organization of education. As a sequel, the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education invited me from the same institution to come and represent the more technical scientific phases of American education. The purpose of this paper is to sketch the story of what projects have been completed during the first half of the year in China, and what projects of the second half are sufficiently far advanced to practically insure their completion.

Before leaving the United States preliminary conferences were held with Chinese students in Columbia University, mission educators on furlough, and others who could offer helpful suggestions. A technical library was assembled. Copies of all mental and physical tests and other technical forms were collected. Calculating books and machines were purchased.

The week following my arrival in China was spent at Nanking in almost continuous conference with the faculty of education of the National Southeastern University. The second week was spent in Peking conferring with a group of interested professors from Peking Teachers College and Peking National University. Later, either by personal visit or correspondence, there was an exchange of views with the leading scientific students of education, both mission and Chinese, in Canton, Shanghai, Soochow, Nanking, Wuchang, Tientsin, Peking, and other places. Out of these conferences grew that part of the year's program of the Association with which I have been concerned.

Some of the more important decisions reached by these conferees follow :

1. That all the research of the year be applied research rather than pure research—be practical and only incidentally theoretical. Consequently all the activities have been in the nature of projects. Researches in the strictest sense have been undertaken only when they were required for the immediate furtherance of projects. Discoveries of considerable theoretical interest have been made, but in the main they have been by-products.

2. That chief attention should be given to the construction, scaling and standardization of mental and physical tests. This decision was made partly because numerous able students of Chinese education had already launched a vigorous movement in this field, and hence it provided the best immediate center for the organization of coöperative research. Also it was believed that scientific educational tests held greater practical promise for improving the efficiency of instruction than anything else that could be created in one year's time. While measurement was to receive most emphasis, other promising projects were not to be wholly neglected.

3. That tests for the elementary school should be emphasized. Those acquainted with Chinese education concur in the opinion that the secondary schools have received a disproportionate share of attention. Partly to help compensate for this improper emphasis in the past, and partly to help shift attention downward, it was decided to limit the program for secondary schools and colleges to the construction of type tests only. The progress of the work has been so much more rapid than anyone anticipated that this limitation has been greatly relaxed.

4. That most tests should be in the Chinese language and that all tests involving such language should be constructed by Chinese educators. The Chinese language is changing so rapidly that one of the greatest scholars of China

confessed to me that he neither spoke nor wrote what is now the standard of perfectly pure Chinese, and that he knew of no educated man who did. Worse still, he stated that language errors increased with each additional year of schooling. Somewhat more consoling was the remark that he heard a three-year-old child correct a rhetorical error in a Mother Goose rhyme written by a leading writer of Chinese books and that it was the common people who used the purest language. This reversal of all our habitual ideas is due to the fact that the vernacular is erupting through the crust of the old literary language. The point is that the construction of tests in Chinese is scarcely an appropriate undertaking for a non-native.

5. That most non-language tests and all tests in English should be constructed by mission educators. One of the pleasing features of the work was to discover that there were more trained mission educators than were required to accomplish their part of the program.

6. That all tests in Chinese should be in the national vernacular language rather than in the classical language. The unanimous nature of this decision is striking evidence of the success of the literary revolution mentioned previously—success, at least, with the younger Chinese leaders.

7. That the program should be made national in scope by securing the coöperation of all recognized leaders in the technical study of Chinese education. More than thirty such individuals distributed among the chief population centers of China, are actively engaged, together with their students, in carrying out more than twice as many different projects, and many more projects than this if each form of a test is counted as a different project.

8. That the program should not illustrate and thereby induce a narrow conception of education. Consequently tests are being prepared in such fields as citizenship, health, household arts, physical education, etc. In some cases tests are being built in subjects where no instruction is being

given, in order to bring more dramatically to public attention the need for such instruction.

9. That every test should be carefully scrutinized from the point of view of its probable future influence upon educational emphasis. The experience of the United States has shown the tremendous influence for good or ill which standard tests exert upon educational practice. For example, long and complicated examples and all fractions were omitted from the test in arithmetic fundamentals. The presence of the former would inevitably induce the teacher to train pupils beyond the maximum essential set by modern pedagogy, and the presence of the latter would tend to fix upon China a cumbersome system from which she is now mostly and fortunately free.

10. That each project be assigned, so far as possible, to that individual who was interested, was best equipped to do it well, and was most likely to maintain a permanent interest in it. It was fully realized by all that this year is just the first year, and that China needs radiating centers of specialization. From the beginning the creation of a trained leadership was put first in importance. Here my total ignorance of the language proved a blessing, for it compelled me to delegate responsibility.

11. That all doubtful matters should be decided finally by the Chinese. This was at my request lest some critic be able to charge undue foreign influence. Thus, I withheld my opinion concerning such questions as these: Should tests use the national or literary language? Should test elements read from left to right or from the top downward?

12. That the Association should copyright all completed tests, arrange for their publication and distribution at a single center, keep the power to prevent price inflation, provide for the collection and tabulation of future test results, and retain a portion of the author's royalty to cover the cost of constant supervision and revision and to foster educational research in general.

13. That, during the second year, the Association organize and conduct under the supervision of its technical staff a national, coöperative self-survey, using for this purpose specially designed and almost self-administering tests. The purpose of this survey is to acquaint educators with tests, to motivate teachers to make use of self-helps to be published by the Association, and to conduct a national contest among pupils. The tests will be so designed as to yield automatically a reasonably fair measure of efficiency for each pupil, class, school, and school system irrespective of age or intelligence, and with and without regard to cost of instruction.

14. That, during the first and second semesters, a class of advanced students of education should be organized in Nanking and Peking respectively in order to receive training in measurement and give assistance in the preparation, application, scaling, and standardization of tests. The class in Nanking was organized in the National Southeastern University. The class in Peking is a composite of students from Peking Teachers College, Peking Teachers College for Women, Yenching University, and Peking National University. The help of the Nanking class and its faculty directors, Professors Alice L. Butler, S. Y. Chang, H. C. Chen, T. H. Cheng, J. P. Chu, S. C. Liao, C. W. Luh, H. C. Meng, C. H. McCloy, Y. C. Tu, T. L. Tsu, and T. Y. Yui, was invaluable. The Peking class, with its faculty directors, Professors L. C. Cha, C. Y. Chang, Y. C. Chang, C. H. Chuang, P. C. Chang, L. K. Chen, H. T. Hsüeh, T. T. Lew, Ida Lewis, P. Ling, and E. L. Terman, has just gotten started, but the start is a particularly vigorous one.

Similar classes and their professors in other large culture centers of China have taken charge of various portions of the year's program. The professors in immediate charge of these projects are as follows :



E. J. Anderson, Annie E. Bradshaw, S. G. Brinkley, A. A. Bullock, H. C. Chow (in America), Brownell Gage, J. N. Keys, H. C. E. Liu, Ralph Wells, C. H. Westbrook, and K. T. Yeung.

To the foregoing list should be added the name of W. T. Tao, General Director of the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education, under whose able leadership the whole program was formulated and is being accomplished.

15. That all tests should be scaled, so as to permit the use of data for scientific as well as practical purposes; all scaling should be according to some uniform system, so as to secure comparability of scores from test to test and thus facilitate the tabulation and interpretation of results; and all direction booklets should be modeled after a standard design, so that teachers will find it necessary to learn just one procedure. After a detailed study and discussion of the merits and demerits of existing systems of scale construction, and after listing some twenty-five criteria for evaluating scale systems, the conferees<sup>4</sup> graded these criteria for significance and then graded each scale system according to the completeness with which it satisfied each criterion. Thus the final selection was made according to the method of consensus of judgment. The result unanimously favored the T B C F system. This scale system\* is a sort of eclectic one, representing as it does an attempt to embody as many as possible of the best features of the other leading systems, namely, grade scale, percentile scale, and age scale.

A detailed description of this scale system cannot be attempted here. A few words must suffice. T is a unit for measuring the total amount of a pupil's ability in some trait.

\* For a description see McCall's *How to Experiment in Education*, The Macmillan Company, New York City, 1923.

B is a unit for measuring a pupil's rate of progress and hence his brightness in the trait in question. C is a unit which automatically indicates a pupil's proper classification in a standard school in China. F is a unit for measuring effort or how much the pupil has learned in proportion to his native intelligence or capacity to learn. Each test will be so constructed as to yield a T, B, and C for each pupil, class, school, or school system. Each educational test will yield F provided an intelligence test is used in conjunction with the educational test.

16. That I should prepare and distribute to the various coöperators detailed directions covering the numerous technical decisions of the conferees. The first of such bulletins gave a sample mental test and a sample examiner's guide to be published with the test. This examiner's guide illustrated how to formulate general directions for applying a test, how to prepare instructions to pupils, how to score a test and compute T, B, C, and F scores, how to interpret such scores, and how to utilize them for improving study, instruction, and supervision. The second bulletin described in great detail the steps in the process of constructing, scaling, standardizing and publishing difficulty tests, rate tests, a battery of several tests and product-scoring instruments such as handwriting and composition scales. The third bulletin described and illustrated the statistical process for T, B, C, and F scaling. Additional bulletins are in preparation. These bulletins are too technical to be presented in this paper but anyone interested will find an elaboration of them in two books: *How to Measure in Education* (1922) and *How to Experiment in Education* (1923), The Macmillan Company, New York.

17. That a determined effort should be made to construct for China educational measuring instruments equal or superior to those possessed by any other country. To make this possible, each person who assumed responsibility for a test pledged to do his utmost to make his test superior in at least one respect to the best of its kind previously built.

## I. INTELLIGENCE TESTS

1. Butler Non-Language Intelligence Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 1-4. By Alice Butler, Professor of Psychology, Ginling College for Women.

2. Liu-Bradshaw Non-Language Intelligence Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 4-8. By Dr. H. C. E. Liu, Educational Secretary, Chinese National Y. M. C. A., and Annie Bradshaw, Professor of Psychology, Laura Haygood Normal School.

3. Liao Verbal Intelligence Test, Scale A, Form 1. For grades 4-8. By Dr. S. C. Liao, Professor of Education and Principal of the Model Secondary School, National Southeastern University.

4. Liao Verbal Intelligence Test, Scale B, Form 1. For grades 4-8. By Dr. S. C. Liao.

5. Lew Verbal Intelligence Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 8-12. By Dr. T. T. Lew, Dean of College of Theology, Yenching University, and Professor of Psychology, Peking National University and Peking Teachers College.

6. Chang Verbal Intelligence Test, Scale A, Forms 1 and 2. For college and college entrance. By Y. C. Chang, Professor and Head of Department of Psychology, Peking Teachers College.

7. Chang Verbal Intelligence Test, Scale B, Forms 1 and 2. For college and college entrance. By Professor Y. C. Chang.

8. Chang Verbal Intelligence Test, Scale C, Forms 1 and 2. For college and college entrance. By Professor Y. C. Chang.

9. Luh Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale, Form 1. For ages 3 to adult. By Dr. C. W. Luh, Professor and Head of Department of Psychology, National Southeastern University.

10. Terman Mechanical Intelligence Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 5-12. By E. L. Terman, Professor of Education, Yenching University.

## II. EDUCATIONAL TESTS

11. Chen Silent Reading Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 1-4. By H. C. Chen, Professor of Psychology, National Southeastern University.

12. Chen Silent Reading Test, Forms 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. For grades 1-8. By Professor H. C. Chen.

13. Chen Silent Reading Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 8-12. By Professor H. C. Chen.

14. Westbrook English Silent Reading Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 5-7. By Dr. C. H. Westbrook, Dean of the School of Education, Shanghai College.

15. Brinkley English Silent Reading Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 5-12. By S. L. Brinkley, Professor of Education and English, Soochow University.

16. Gage English Vocabulary-Reading Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 5-12. By Brownell Gage, Dean of Yale-in-China.

17. Keys English Vocabulary-Opposites Test, Forms 1, 2, 3, and 4. For grades 5-12. J. N. Keys, Professor of Education, Canton Christian College and Supervisor of English, Kwantung Province.

18. Chang National Language Auditory Comprehension Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 2-8. By S. Y. Chang, Professor of English, National Southeastern University.

19. Keys English Auditory Comprehension Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 5-12. By Professor J. N. Keys.

20. Anderson Comprehensive English Test, Form 1. For grades 8-12. By E. J. Anderson, Professor of Psychology, Shanghai College.

21. Keys English Grammar-Idiom Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 5-12. By Professor J. N. Keys.

22. Chou Mixed Wenli and National Language Composition Scale, Form 1. For grades 1-12. By H. C. Chou, graduate student and Ph. D. candidate, Teachers College, Columbia University.

23. Yui National Language Composition Scale, Form 1. For grades 1-12. By T. Y. Yui, Professor of Education and Principal of Model Elementary School, National Southeastern University.

24. Bullock English Composition Scale, Form 1. For grades 6-12. By A. A. Bullock, Professor of Education, Union Normal School, Wuchang.

25. Yui Formal Handwriting Scale, Form 1. For grades 1-12. By Professor T. Y. Yui.

26. Yui Running Handwriting Scale, Form 1. For grades 4-18. By Professor T. Y. Yui.

27. Chen Spelling Scale, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 3-8. By Professor H. C. Chen.

28. Terman Mixed Fundamentals of Arithmetic, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 3-8. By Professor E. L. Terman.

29. Yui Arithmetic Problems Test, Forms 1, 2, 3, and 4. For grades 3-8. By Professor T. Y. Yui.

30. Chang Algebra Fundamentals Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 8-12. By C. Y. Chang, President of the Pao-tungfu Normal School.

31. Chang Algebra Equations Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 8-12. By Professor C. Y. Chang.

32. Chang Algebra Problems Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 8-12. By Professor C. Y. Chang.

33. Yui Practice Tests in Integers and Decimals, Forms 1 and 2. Fifty-eight practice lessons for grades 4-8. By Professor T. Y. Yui.

34. Chen General Science Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 3-8. By Professor H. C. Chen.

35. Yeung Chinese Geography Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 4-8. By K. T. Yeung, Professor of Psychology, Canton Christian College.

36. Chen Science Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 8-12. By Y. G. Chen, Dean of the Department of Physics and Chemistry, Peking Teachers College.

37. Tsu Chinese History Test. Forms 1 and 2. For grades 6-12. By T. L. Tsu, Professor of History, National Southeastern University.

38. Lewis Household Arts Objectives and Test, Scale A, Form 1. For grades 6-12. By Dr. Ida Belle Lewis, Educational Secretary for the Methodist Woman's Board of Missions for China.

39. Lewis Household Arts Objectives and Test, Scale B, Form 1. For grades 6-12. By Dr. Ida Lewis.

40. Lewis Household Arts Objectives and Test, Scale C, Form 1. For grades 6-12. By Dr. Ida Lewis.

41. Chang-Ling Citizenship Objectives and Test. For grades 1-12. By Dr. P. C. Chang, Director of Secondary Education Division of the National Association for the Advancement of Education, and Dr. P. Ling, Dean of Nankai College.

42. McCloy Health Test. For grades 1-12. By C. H. McCloy, Professor of Physical Education, National Southeastern University, and Director of Physical Education, Kiangsu Province.

### III. SPECIAL TESTS AND RELATED PROJECTS

43. Terman Survey Non-Language Intelligence Test, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 4-8. By Professor E. L. Terman.

44. Cha Survey Battery of Educational Tests, Forms 1 and 2. For grades 4-8. By L. C. Cha, Professor of the Philosophy of Education, Peking Teachers College.

45. McCloy Score Card and Point System for Standard Athletic Games of Skill. For grades 1-16. By Professor C. H. McCloy.

46. McCloy Curriculum of Objectives in Physical Education. For grades 1-16. By Professor C. H. McCloy.

47. Chu-Tu School Building Score Card. By Dr. J. P. Chu, Professor of Statistical Methods, National Southeastern University and Dean of the First Girls' Normal School of Kiangsu, and Y. C. Tu, Professor of Civil Engineering, National Southeastern University.

48. Chen Character Count of the National Language. By Professor H. C. Chen.

49. Chen Idea Count of the National Language. By Professor H. C. Chen.

50. Chen Score Card for the Difficulty of Words, Sentences and Paragraphs. Professor H. C. Chen.

51. Chu Standardization of Measurement and Statistical Terminology. Dr. J. P. Chu.

52. Chuang Standardization of Psychological Terminology. By Dr. C. H. Chuang, Professor of Psychology, Tsing Hua College.

53. Cheng-Meng-Tao Standardization of Educational Terminology. By T. H. Cheng, Professor of Education, National Southeastern University, Dr. H. C. Meng, Professor of the Philosophy of Education, National Southeastern University, and W. T. Tao, Director of the National Association for the Advancement of Education and Dean of the School of Education, National Southeastern University.

54. Terman Cumulative Record Card for Standard Tests. By Professor E. L. Terman.

55. Chen-Chu Survey of the Hangchow School System. By Professor H. C. Chen and J. P. Chu.

56. Liao Experiment with the Dalton Plan in a Chinese Secondary School. By Dr. S. C. Liao.

57. Wells Slide Rule for Converting Chinese Old to Chinese New Age. By Ralph C. Wells, Principal of the Point Breeze Academy of Weih sien.

58. McCall and Others Permanent Exhibit of Tests and Standards in the Temple of Emperors, Peking.

## IV. PUBLICATIONS AND LECTURES

59. McCall Series of Popular and Technical Lectures Throughout China and Series of Articles for Newspapers, Magazines and Technical Journals.

60. McCall Series of Bulletins on the Technique of Constructing, Scaling, Standardizing and Using Tests, Preparation of Examiner's Manuals, etc.

61. Chang-McCall Plan and Bulletin of Instructions for the National School Survey of 1923-24. By Professor C. Y. Chang.

62. Chen-Liao "How to Measure in Education," Vol. I (Elementary). By Professors H. C. Chen and S. C. Liao.

63. Lew-McCall "How to Measure in Education," Vol. II (Advanced). By Dr. T. T. Lew.

64. Authors of Intelligence Tests "Story of the Construction of the 1922-23 Series of Intelligence Test," Vol. III.

65. Authors of Educational Tests "Story of the Construction of the 1922-23 Series of Educational Tests," Vol. IV.

66. Authors of Other Projects "Story of the 1922-23 Series of Non-Test Projects, Vol. V.

67. Authors of all Tests "Bound Volume of All Tests and Manuals," Vol. VI.

The next step in this presentation should be an evaluation of the projects, particularly the tests. If this evaluation were to be a relative one it would consist principally in comparing each test with its nearest equivalent in the United States, for almost every type of mental test has reached its highest development in America. The tests constructed by my Chinese and mission colleagues, when checked against this standard, merit, I believe, the conclusion that in every case they are equal to, and in most cases they are superior to, the like tests in America which served as suggestive models. This is not a matter for boasting. The opposite would require apology, for it is the obligation of all to be grateful for and to improve upon their inheritance.



Any attempt to justify this conclusion would require a few volumes and much technical discussion. Here only a few popular illustrations can be given. The non-language intelligence tests with the exception of one which is a novel and promising experiment, were constructed in harmony with Dr. Herman Liu's, Ph. D. dissertation, which is an elaborate study of the parts of most previously-existing non-language intelligence tests. Improvements in the verbal intelligence tests are of the following sorts: (a) More emphasis upon difficulty and less upon speed, (b) simplification of scoring, (c) mechanical arrangement of material so as to facilitate stencil scoring, (d) location of preliminary tests so as to save printing costs and so as to prevent pupils working on regular test during explanation and preliminary testing, (e) utilization of recent critical studies of various tests. An improvement in the Revision of the Binet-Simon Scale is the use of a special range-finding test for determining more objectively than heretofore the equivalent of a pupil's basal age. The silent reading tests, both Chinese and English, are so constructed that they may be scored more objectively than usual, and most of them make use of a device which permits the test papers to be used over and over again, thus effecting a great saving in cost. Furthermore, their content was based on Chen's and Thorndike's word counts of the Chinese and English languages respectively. One unique superiority of the composition and handwriting scales is that they give practical recognition, for the first time, to the fact that the scale values on such scales, as used in the past, were merely for scoring purposes. The scales, as used in China, have values comparable with any performance scale. The superiorities in the realm of physical measurements are greater still. Thus the score card and point system for standard athletic games is incomparably the best work of its kind. All

mental tests have one marked superiority. All on each level, are scaled in such a way as to permit automatic interpretation of results, and so as to secure comparability of scores from test to test.

The outstanding inferiority of tests in China is inadequate standardization. This is a defect which time and surveys already under way and others planned for the future will correct. Even so, there are not a large number of tests in America whose published norms are based upon more than two thousand pupils. In the case of the linguistic Chinese tests, there may be other defects invisible to me because I do not know the Chinese language. This possibility is admitted. To be illiterate in Chinese does not, however, exclude one from a fairly clear knowledge of the content of these tests. All tests were translated for me two or more times. Furthermore, the statistical technique for evaluating the content of tests has become so refined that many times I was able to locate linguistic defects invisible to those who knew Chinese but not the statistical procedures.

The possibility of one other defect must be recognized; particularly in the case of the intelligence tests. The extensive use made of intelligence tests developed in the United States as models is justifiable only in case the general nature of intelligence in the United States is essentially the same as the general nature of intelligence in China. Every competent psychologist with whom I have consulted believes that the nature of intelligence is the same in all races. They believe, further, that a test of the ability to perceive relationships among objects and ideas is just as symptomatic of intelligence in China as it is in America.

As will be evident from an inspection of the projects of the year, the purpose has not been to study numerous interesting psychological problems. The purpose has been, rather, the more tedious one of creating those instruments indispensable to such studies. Incidental to the scaling and standardization of the tests it was possible to collect data

which is now being so treated as to yield important information. All that will be given here is a brief description of a few of the more useful inventions or discoveries which have more or less universal validity and which are thus likely to be of interest to the delegates to the International Conference on Education. These are :

1. A simple, generalized formula for allowing for chance regardless of the number of alternatives. This formula will prevent the pupil who lacks ability but who marks rapidly and at random from making a higher score than the pupil who is slow or cautious but sure. In the past, it has been customary to ignore this error when the alternatives were more than two.

2. A generalized formula for the inclusion of elements in alternatives such that full knowledge will be required before correct answers can be given. Thus, in a silent reading test, a pupil may be asked to read a passage and then mark that one of five drawings described by the passage. The problem solved by this formula is how to so distribute the difficult elements of the passage among these five drawings that a chance knowledge of the meaning of one or a few words will not give the clew to the correct alternative or will not so restrict the range of choice as to invalidate the formula for allowing for chance.

3. A new method for constructing product scales such as composition and handwriting scales. This method is far less laborious than the standard method in use ; and it yields directly both a product-scoring instrument and a product scale with values comparable with those for ordinary performance tests.

4. A method for the construction of a C scale. The C score yielded by this scale gives an automatic reading of a pupil's proper classification in a standard school.

5. A straight-line equation for a C scale, and an identical equation for all C scales. One of the two most surprising discoveries, to date, is that the C-scale curves or grade-

progress curves for all tests may be superimposed on each other. This means that after determining the T scale for all tests and the C scale or grade norms for one, it would have been possible to use this one C scale for all the other tests. An identical table for computing C scores is being used for all tests on each level. The C-scale curves for the three scaling levels, namely grades 1-4, 4-8, and 8-12, have a different slope, but all are straight lines. Whether this C-scale equation will fit the tests constructed during the second half year remains to be seen.

6. A simple and identical logarithmic equation for all B scales. This is the other surprising discovery. The identity of the B-scale curves or age-progress curves for the different tests was less close than in the case of the C scale, but it was close enough to justify the use of a common table for computing B scores.

7. A new method for the construction of intelligence tests. The chief merits of the method are simplicity and flexibility. It permits a content of very great variety, and the testing of a large number of different mental traits. It may be used in the construction of tests for all intelligence levels from the first grade through the university. The same, uniform, simple, controlled response is required throughout the entire test, and irrespective of the level of intelligence being tested. Few preliminary directions are required, and there are no directions after the pupils begin to take the test. This makes the application of the test a very simple matter. Finally, the method effectively overcomes the great difficulty of constructing test elements which are sufficiently difficult to measure the maximum mental subtlety of gifted university students.

8. A new and unusually simple formula for measuring the efficiency of a school, and school system. This formula utilizes direct rather than correlated efficiency indices. The formula operates automatically to discourage school systems from having an undue percentage of age retardation. It

prevents a school from creating the appearance or efficiency by refusing to graduate students at the normal time. It prevents a school from crediting to itself as superior efficiency what is really due to location in a neighborhood which contributes gifted children to the school. The formula operates automatically to encourage the community to lengthen the school term to the optimum length, and to secure steady attendance on the part of the pupils. It operates to reduce the cost of school instruction to the lowest point it can go, not to cripple the effectiveness of the instruction, effect unfavorably the morale of the teachers, or drive the more efficient teachers to leave the profession of teaching or seek employment elsewhere. The formula gives an automatic index of when the staff of the school system is entitled to higher salaries because of superior efficiency. It thus operates as a powerful motivator to the harmonious coöperation of all the agencies of the school for increasing the efficiency index, so as thereby to justify a salary increase. Finally, the formula operates to encourage research to determine what is the optimum length of school term, or the optimum amount of other somewhat uncertain elements which enter into the formula. The formula appears to be fool-proof in that it is simple to operate, and genius-proof in that no person has yet discovered a method of increasing the efficiency index without doing something which is desirable for the school.

I cannot close this paper without a word of appreciation to those who have made this year's program possible. I count it a very rare privilege to have been Director of Psychological Research for the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education in the year when it inaugurated, on a scale never before attempted, its nationwide program of test construction, and enlisted for this work some of the best-trained minds in Chinese education. For this gave me an opportunity to witness in these educators of China such a spirit of generous coöperation and such a devotion through the drudgery inseparable from careful research

as is without parallel in my experience. I have already stated my opinion of the quality of the work they have done and are doing now. Let me conclude with an opinion of the significance of their achievement for Chinese education.

The four fundamentals of education are these . the pupil, the educational objectives, the methods and materials of instruction, and measurement. Without measurement we cannot adequately know the pupil, for we cannot determine his capacities and abilities. Without measurement we cannot evaluate objectives, define their amount so as to regulate emphasis, or make them visible so as to motivate both pupil and teacher. Without measurement we cannot evaluate the methods and materials of instruction, for their worth is known only by their measured effects. In sum, to test all things and hold fast that which is good is as prerequisite to progress in education as it has been to the correction of our practical philosophy, or the improvement of every form of life upon the earth. It is for these reasons that I prophesy that the publication of these measuring instruments plus the movement for the scientific study of education which they will inaugurate will be ranked among the few most important events in the history of Chinese education.



# CHINA'S NEW SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

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## CHINA'S NEW SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Systems, being the product of time, change with it. A system of education is by no means an exception to the rule. So without a bird's-eye view of the complicated background of China's new system of education, it would perhaps leave in the dark the foreign educator who has not kept very closely in touch with its brief but ever-expanding history, as to the necessity and significance of the present change.

Now the aims and standards of the new system, as finally promulgated on November 1, 1922, are sevenfold, i. e. :

1. To adapt itself to a changed and changing society,
2. To promote the spirit of democracy,
3. To develop individuality,
4. To take into special consideration the economic status of the average citizen,
4. To adjust education to the needs of life,
6. To facilitate the spread of universal education, and
7. To make itself flexible enough to allow for local variations.

When read in the light of history, these specifications become but proposed solutions to very urgent problems.

Previous to the recent revision, the last extensive change in our system of education took place in 1912, or the first year of the Republic. Ten years is a long period in a country which throbs with the unexpected difficulties of a revolutionary transition. The discrepancy between a finished system and actual social conditions was, however, aggravated by the fact that the authorities who brought the 1912 revision failed exactly to understand the real needs of the time. Indeed, it was well-nigh impossible for one to get a clear perspective of

the situation at that time when, in the fervor of reconstruction, deliberation on the undesirable effects of haphazard action was not allowed its full sway. After ten years of trial and failure, now with better understanding of the possibilities of a new education, we are fully prepared to welcome another reconstruction. Thus the new system appeals to us on account of its first criterion of closer social adaptation at least, if for nothing else.

To promote the spirit of democracy is also one of the alleged aims. So far as theory and legal status are concerned, the Chinese people have been fortunate in that our systems of education have been truly democratic in a real sense of the word. No class limitations have been imposed, except indirectly an economic one, nor has scientific training been so directed as to make its product less of a citizen and more of an artisan. Perhaps an exception may be found in the ruling that in order to enter school a boy or girl must be "*sun-chatsing-pe*," i. e., coming from a pure, clean family. By this was meant the exclusion of the children of menial slaves. While this ruling was nominally effective even as late as 1910, the question as to who such children were never was seriously raised. Practically, in Chinese society, there could not have been such strict differentiation.

In fact, the equality of educational opportunity was even implicitly taken to mean that anybody could learn anything. Twenty years ago, the only way to get one's self initiated into officialdom and to succeed in it was to become a literatus. Then the function of one examination was to prepare for the next, while the elected candidate professed to know everything worth while knowing. This ubiquitous worship of success led to the overemphasis of classics and bookish ethics in the elementary and secondary schools, to the detriment of vocational education. The same unwholesome influence is even to-day contributing toward the almost universal failure of secondary instruction, in general as well as in vocational schools. So the working out of an intrinsically

democratic principle has proved contrary to reasonable expectations. Nevertheless, an unbiased critic will acknowledge that, as a principle, it does not discriminate unjustifiably. It was also this generous spirit which made it possible and practicable for significant readjustments to take place within remarkably short intervals, without organized opposition on undemocratic grounds.

If we now turn to the education of women, we see from a new angle how the new system takes one last step in the promotion of the spirit of democracy. Like the system of 1902, it makes no special provision for female education. But twenty years had wrought this almost unbelievable change in our educational atmosphere: whereas, in 1902, the admission of women to any grade of school was not even a problem, their eligibility to every grade of school is now beyond question. It has, therefore, been unnecessary in either case to specify or deliniate female education. A glimpse of the history of this radical conversion, not only in a promulgated program but also in our habits of thought, will perhaps prove interesting, inasmuch as it very nicely epitomizes the dramatic yet commonplace happenings on the road to freedom.

Female education was first referred to in the "Revised Catalogue" of 1903. As it was the venerable tradition strictly to segregate the sexes, girls and young women must not be allowed to enter school or to invade the busy streets promiscuously. Nor was it proper for them to read too many Western books, lest they wrongly adopt the foreign customs and gradually come to believe in free marriage and to slight the authority of their parents and husbands. So the female sex should be educated only in the home, where the proper teacher was the mother or the guardian. The curriculum also should be limited to the absolute necessities of a housewife, such as reading, writing, and the fundamentals of arithmetic. In brief, the tenor of such royal exhortation fairly represented the Chinese attitude toward women since time immemorial. The liberal education of the girls was thus

left to the missionaries and to a few private individuals who were brave enough to dare the then disrupting central authorities.

Then came the memorable day of March 8 (old lunar calendar), 1907, when the first edict of emancipation put into effect thirty-six regulations for the organization of girls' normal schools and twenty-six for the organization of girls' elementary schools. It is interesting to note that in both grades of schools the number of years of attendance was different for boys and girls, the latter receiving one year less of training in either institution, i. e., four and eight instead of five and nine years. Under such circumstances, it was entirely too early to speak of coeducation.

After the Revolution of 1911, the revised regulations still did not explicitly legalize coeducation, though such was allowed, but the discrimination in the number of years of attendance was removed. The nineteenth regulation of the Citizen School Bulletin of 1916 reads as follows: "As soon as a sufficient number of girls are enrolled for the organization of a separate class, they should no longer attend the same class with boys. This condition does not apply to the first two grades." But the sixteenth regulation of the Higher Primary School Bulletin of the same year, while allowing boys and girls to attend the same institution, definitely segregated them into separate classes. For the last few years, the adoption of coeducation to its fullest extent, throughout the four years of the Citizen School, has become commonplace, while the carrying up of this policy into the higher primary school has gradually met with social approval.

As to secondary female education, very little can be spoken of besides the normal school. Only a few public middle schools were opened for girls, and the requirements as established in the early years of the Republic only served to regulate and in many cases to interfere with the private institutions, then the only places where half of the population

could receive anything like a liberal education beyond the seven years of elementary schooling (not eight or nine, as during the Manchu régime). The solution of the problem perhaps does not lie in the organization of more secondary schools, but rather in the adoption of coeducation throughout the school system. So the fact becomes significant that in 1921 the middle schools of Kwangtung province began to admit girls. In the same year the experimental Middle School of the Peking Teachers College took in a number of girl students on trial.

The higher education of women has been even more neglected than secondary education. The project for the establishment of a Higher Normal School for Women did not come into effect until eight years after its announcement. It was as late as April 23, 1919, that the Peking Girls' Normal School was reorganized and developed into a Higher Normal School of junior college standing. The next year, the National Peking University and the Nanking Teachers College opened their doors to women, not a little to the annoyance of the Government.

Now the present revision of the system of education offers absolutely equal opportunity to both sexes from the first grade primary to the postgraduate university course. Doubtless, what is theoretically and officially established will still take time for its final consummation. Meanwhile, reactionaries are not lacking who do not hesitate to throw their whole inference in the opposite direction. Assurance comes to one in looking back for the brief period of twenty years. One observes the spirit of democracy springing up like "spring bamboo," as we say. May it be just as pleasant and enduring.

Mention should also be made of the emphasis which the new system lays on supplementary education in the form of continuation schools. Being an indirect result of the last ten years of industrial development, this new feature is to be criticized in the same light. Industrialism and new democ-

racy come to us hand in hand, a fact which will save us from fathomless troubles.

When we come to consider the third aim of the new system, we at once strike the root of the difficulty in Chinese elementary and secondary education, especially in the latter. China has learned and adopted a good deal from Japan in educational matters, rightly or wrongly. Japanese influence has been dominant ever since we had a school system to speak of. This, one can generally detect by a casual comparison of the educational situations of the two countries, even though one be totally ignorant of the direct historical connections that brought about this similarity. Geographical propinquity was, of course, one of the reasons why we modeled our schools after the Japanese. Then the dazzling success of our neighbor at the beginning of this century made us blind to their shortcomings. As it now appears to us, the Japanese system of twenty years ago sacrificed flexibility for the sake of uniformity and centralization. This particular tendency appealed rather strongly to Chinese men of the Government who had been accustomed to look at things in the old examination way. For when men had but one goal to attain, only one curriculum, one kind of subject matter, one rigid routine of elimination was required. We see this leveling influence of human individuality roughly pantomimized in the process and product of our secondary education. To mention one instance: no elective courses were offered until very recently, and that only in the few most progressive institutions. Preparation for college entrance loomed large in the prospectus of the administration as well as in that of the student body. College education being much beyond the economic possibilities of the average home and accommodating a fraction of the Middle School graduates at most, the vast majority of intellectually stunted youths remained hardly as well prepared for life as an ordinary apprentice or the mason's boy, and in some cases worse than useless.

The vocational schools, too, became very inflexible. It seems as if their main purpose was to advance one from one vocational school to another, rather than from a school to a vocation, or to society as a whole. As a matter of fact, only an insignificant percentage of the secondary vocational school graduates actually reached their destinations. The rest, being at a greater disadvantage than ordinary Middle School graduates in competitive college entrance examinations, now constitute the most helpless group which the authorities of higher education have to deal with.

These difficulties the new system devotes itself to ameliorate. Indeed, it has been justly evaluated that the heart and soul of the system lies with the flexibility of its secondary education section, especially in the wide range of opportunities which it offers for the development of various types of vocational education. And on this point, the hottest debates occurred between the advocates of the system and the defenders of the status quo in the several conferences which were called in 1921 and 1922 for nation-wide deliberation on the problems of educational reform. The nature of these specifications in the new system will be described in the translation that is to follow.

One last point to be noted in connection with the development of individuality is that the importance of special training for supernormal and subnormal children is here explicitly stated. During the days of the old examination the genius in certain lines was allowed his complete freedom of development. It may even be said that the whole royal machinery was operated for the selection of the few, to whom society accorded the largest measure of public esteem. A rigid system of education cannot claim even that much to its credit. Climbing from one grade to another with relentless rigidity now becomes the fate of the wise as well as of the foolish. While nothing



concrete has been instituted for the bettering of the circumstances, the acknowledgment of the fact is significant enough. It at least prepares the way for more flexible organization.

The fourth standard of the new system, as stated above, is to take into special consideration the economic status of the average citizen. It is in a way unfortunate that we have to make this provision, to the extent that the six years of elementary education have to be further divided into two periods of four and two years each. In reading the history of the Chinese systems of education, one cannot but be struck with the fact that, beginning with a ten-year period of elementary education, there has appeared a series of concessions to bare economic necessities, first from ten to nine years, then to eight, then to seven, and finally to the six-year period of the present system. The last step was perhaps unwisely taken, being economically unnecessary. For the limit of compulsory education having been fixed at four years, either two or three years of Higher Primary would be economically indifferent. But for those whose financial ability permits of the whole range of elementary education, the shortening of another year does make a difference, and that to their detriment. Even for the small minority who can afford the privilege of another three or six years of secondary education, this transfer of one year upward also works against their best interests. It is an established fact that, on the whole, Chinese secondary education lags far behind in efficiency as compared with elementary education. The choice between the third year Higher Primary and the first year Junior Middle School is certainly more than a name.

So this particular change was perhaps made on other than economic grounds. The original draft of the revision gave the reason as physiological and psychological, which,

without proof to the contrary, must be considered as unfounded, if not absurd. Some critics are of the opinion that the new system is too much American, just as the old was too much Japanese. If the whole trend of our national life will drift in that direction, we have to admire the promoters of the new system for being prophetically intelligent.

Before we leave this topic of economic consideration, may we not commend that the fixing of compulsory education at four years, while unfortunate, speaks favorably for the practical good sense of our educational leaders? We have to accept circumstances before we change them. To a poor family a child of eleven or twelve counts as an economic asset. At least he or she will be depended on for self-support. Such is the situation not only of the submerged tenth, but of the third or the half.

Without doubt, the provision for pre-vocational training as early as in the fifth year of the Primary and the repeated reference to continuation schools point toward the same necessity of economic adaptation.

Finally, we have come to consider the last three criteria of the new system. While redundancy occasionally has the effect of making one's viewpoint more explicit, these specific statements do not develop anything that could not reasonably be implied in one or another of the four above-described standards. In fact, the revised document of the Eighth Annual Conference of the Provincial and Special District Educational Associations contained only the first four statements. The Ministry of Education reverted to an earlier draft apparently for no significant reasons. So we can pass over these attenuated statements with just a word of apprehension.

By education for the needs of life is not meant the unnecessary reduplication of vocational or technical training

which results in waste and confusion. The new system has rightly provided for every opportunity for vocational training throughout the eight years of higher primary and middle school education. Beyond this is the college professional course, which covers from four to six years. It can exist as a department of a university or by itself as a separate college. The twenty-fifth article of the document further provides that the colleges and universities can offer a special professional course to cover any desirable number of years. But parallel to and co-existing with all these possibilities there still exists the old Technical School as a separate institution. The twenty-fourth article bears the amusing statement, that when a technical course covers the same number of years as a college course the same treatment will be accorded. Not only is such a duplication of organization aimless and unnecessary, but judging from past experience, also undesirable. The object of this seemingly all-embracing paternal policy was perhaps not so much education for the needs of life as the maintenance of the status quo. Here lies the chief difficulty of the Chinese educational situation.

The sixth criterion, i. e., the facilitation of universal education, is explainable only in that the new promulgation does not directly work against it. There is no point here which the new system can score against the old. Besides, one cannot understand how a few regulations on paper can automatically set a movement on foot. Systems are, after all, only systems.

The seventh item is to be recommended if it does not lead to the same pitfall as concealed in the fifth.

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With these inevitable introductory remarks, we are ready to take up the document as a whole. The following is an exact translation:

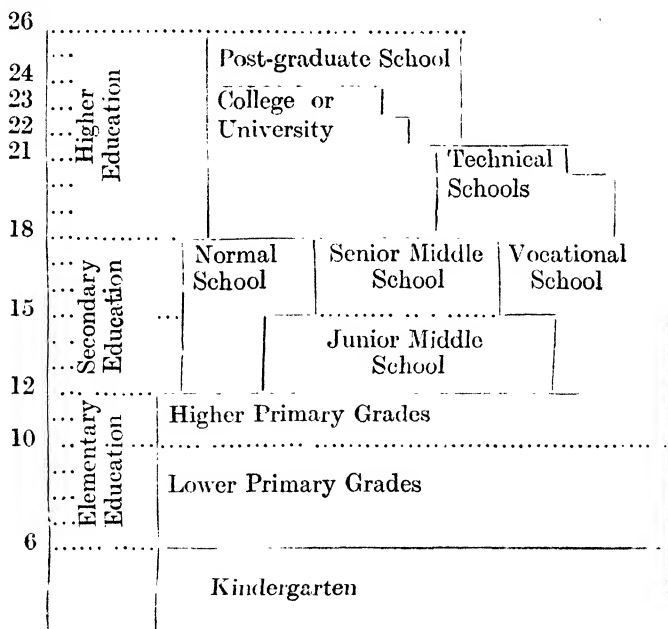
*The Twenty-Third Ordinance of the Ministry of Education*

*The Reorganization of the System of Education*

AIMS AND STANDARDS (as described above).

DIAGRAMATIC REPRESENTATION :

Age



(The left column in the diagram represents the standard ages at which a student should enter the different grades. In practice, however, these are to be determined according to intelligence, record, and other considerations.)

## EXPLANATIONS:

*I. Primary Education*

(1) Attendance at the elementary school is limited to six years.

NOTE 1. Temporarily it may be extended another year in order to fit into local situations.

(2) The elementary school may be divided into the Lower Primary and the Higher Primary Grades. The former consists of four years and may be established separately.

(3) Compulsory education is temporarily limited to four years. Under adequate circumstances this may be extended to meet local requirements.

The school age for compulsory education is left to be determined by the different provinces and special districts, according to local situations.

(4) The curriculum of the elementary school may include pre-vocational training, in consideration of the local situations.

(5) After graduation from the lower grades of the Primary School, supplementary education may be given for a sufficient number of years.

(6) The Kindergarten admits children under six years of age.

(7) Supplementary schools should be established for the uneducated adults.

*II. Secondary Education*

(8) Attendance at the Middle School is limited to six years, which are to be divided into two periods of three years each, the Junior Middle School and the Senior Middle School. By the nature of the course, the division may also be fixed at four years for the Junior Middle School and two years for the Senior; or two years for the Junior Middle School and four years for the Senior.

(9) The Junior Middle School may be established separately.

(10) The Senior Middle School should be established together with the Junior Middle School, but under special circumstances it may also be established separately.

(11) The Junior Middle School offers general education, but it may carry on various vocational courses, according to local needs.

(12) The Senior Middle School is divided into the general, the agricultural, the technical, the commercial, and the normal courses. In accordance to local situations only one course may be offered or several courses together.

NOTE 2. The Secondary Industrial Schools established according to the old system are to be reorganized after due consideration into secondary vocational schools, or into the agricultural, technical, and commercial courses of the Senior Middle Schools.

(13) Secondary education may adopt the elective system.

(14) Supplementary (continuation) schools or courses of secondary grade may be opened in different localities, the nature of the course and the year limit to be determined according to local situations.

(15) The year limit and the standing of the vocational schools may be determined in accordance to local needs and situations.

NOTE 3. The Elementary Industrial Schools established according to the old system are to be reorganized, after due consideration, into vocational schools and the graduates of the higher grades of the Primary Schools are to be admitted. In accordance with local situations, they may also admit the graduates of the lower grades of the Primary Schools of suitable ages.

(16) For the promotion of vocational education, Institutes for the Training of Vocational Teachers may be opened in any adequate school after due consideration.

(17) Attendance at the Normal School is limited to six years.

(18) The Normal School may be composed only of the last two or three grades in order to admit the graduates of the Junior Middle Schools.

(19) After due consideration, group electives may be offered in the last three years of the Normal School.

(20) To supply the need of teachers for the lower grades of the Primary Schools, Normal Schools or Normal Institutes, covering a varying number of years, may be established after due consideration.

### *III. Higher Education*

(21) An institution of higher learning may consist of several colleges or only one college. When the latter is the case, the name of the institution should be The College of—; e. g., The College of Medicine, The College of Law, etc.

(22) Attendance at the college or university is limited to four to six years. (The different colleges may deliberately vary within these limits according to the nature of the subject matter.)

Attendance at the College of Medicine or the College of Law is limited to five or more years.

Attendance at the Normal College is limited to four years.

NOTE 4. In due time, the Higher Normal Schools established according to the old system should promote their standing in order to admit the graduates of the Senior Middle Schools, with an attendance limited to four years. They shall then be known as Teachers Colleges.

(23) The College or University adopts the elective system.

(24) Technical Schools may be established on account of special conditions in subject matter or locality. They admit the graduates of the Senior Middle Schools, with an attendance limited to three or more years. When the attendance requirement is the same as for colleges and universities, the same treatment is accorded.

NOTE 5. In due time the Technical Schools established according to the old system should promote their standing in order to admit the graduates of the Senior Middle Schools.

(25) The Colleges, Universities, and Technical Schools may offer special courses, covering a varying number of years. (Those who desire to pursue a certain subject or profession and who are adequately prepared enter such courses.)

(26) To supply the need of teachers for the Junior Middle Schools, a two-year Normal course may be offered. It may be organized in the College of Education of a university, in the Teachers College, or else in the Normal or the Senior Middle School. It admits the graduates of the last-named institutions.

(27) The Postgraduate School is a school of research for college and university graduates and similarly prepared persons. There is no time limit.

#### *IV. Addenda*

(28) Emphasis is laid on genius education, for whom the year limit and the course of instruction may be so varied as to bring supernormal intelligence into full development.

(29) Adequate special education should be offered to the mentally and physically defective.

We are now ready to be profited with a brief sketch of the history that brought about the above twenty-nine articles. As they now stand, they are the product of at least three national conferences, representing the concurrent opinion of hundreds of more or less prominent leaders of education. A compromise has been reached between the Ministry of Education, the defenders of the status quo, as public servants generally are, and the more progressive schoolmen who felt very keenly their own failures as due to the inflexibility of the old system. In that compromise, the influence of the latter clearly dominates, as we shall understand further on.



The necessity for a complete revision of the old system was felt and brought to a point as The Fifth National Conference of the Provincial and Special District Educational Association, which was held in 1919. Nothing materialized that year, however, on account of unsettledness of opinion. The next year four of the provinces presented to the Sixth Conference definite plans for revision. Since only a minority was represented and decisions on such momentous matters would have been haphazard without elaborate deliberation, the motions were laid on the table. It was moved and carried that two months before the convening of the next annual conference, the Educational Association of each province or special district should organize a committee for the investigation of this particular matter, and that the conclusions they could reach were to be laid down in the shape of definite proposals for the consideration of the next conference, copies of which proposals should be sent ahead of time to every other Provincial or Special District Educational Association and to the general office of the next convention.

The Seventh Convention was called in Canton, on Independence Day, October 10, 1921. After much exchange of opinion, it was finally decided to accept the Kwangtung plan as a basis for discussion. The document was very similar to the new promulgated system. It was passed with only minor modifications, and the same was published, greatly to the alarm and indignation of the Ministry of Education, which had not been consulted.

In September, 1922, the Ministry on its own initiative called a meeting of the representatives of the Provincial and Special District Departments of Education, the representatives of the Provincial and Special District Educational Associations, the presidents of the national institutions of higher learning, the members of certain departments of the Ministries of Education and Interior, and such educational experts as was deemed advisable for the Ministry to invite. The main purpose of the conference was explicitly the revision

of the system of education, without officially acknowledging, however, the project passed by the Seventh Annual Conference of the Educational Associations. Quite a different plan was proposed, which was then submitted to the Eighth Conference of the Educational Association for final adoption.

The convention was called in Tsinan in the middle of November the same year. It received the official document with less hostility than was expected. Hot verbal encounters were inevitable, but the decision was soon reached to accept a compromise. So a committee of eighteen was elected to thrash out the problem, which from the outset took the attitude that to keep to the wording of the Ministry document as closely as possible, while preserving the intentions of the Canton project, would prove satisfactory to all concerned.

The discrepancy between the two points of view became most manifest on certain very important propositions. For instance, the Ministry proposed a four-two plan for secondary education, instead of the three-three plan. Both in the case of the Higher Normal School and the Technical School, the Ministry suggested the lowering of standard rather than promoting it. These and other conclusions ran contradictory to the crucial intentions of the Canton project, but in the final decision the latter prevailed on all important problems. The revised draft was then presented to the Ministry for promulgation. A few verbal changes were made before it finally became the Twenty-third Ordinance.

China has had at least four systems of education within the last twenty years. This last one represents general as well as expert opinion.



# WOMAN'S EDUCATION IN CHINA

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## WOMAN'S EDUCATION IN CHINA

There is a conception on the part of some people that Chinese women in the past had little or no education. We are inclined to believe, however, that a history of eminent women in ancient China, if ever written, would reveal the fact that much emphasis was placed on the education of women in ancient China. While the Teutonic Tribes were making their primitive homes by the North Sea and the Baltic, Chinese women were distinguishing themselves as inventors, poets, writers, teachers, historians, and social reformers. Lai-Tsu (嫫祖), some two thousand years before Christ, discovered the method of raising the silkworm. Vo-Yu (伏女) recited Hsiang-su (尚書) to perpetuate the classical doctrines that had almost been lost in the cruel conflagration of the Tsin dynasty (秦). Lady Tsoa (班昭), who wrote the latter part of the history of the Han dynasty, enjoyed a reputation that nearly eclipsed that of her illustrious brother. Dec Young (緹縈), who saved her father from unjust punishment, appealed to the Emperor to abolish all physical tortures in courts throughout the Empire. Mother Meng, who brought up and educated Mencius, apparently realized the significance of environment, or what Professor Dewey calls "situation," for she removed her house three times in succession to give Mencius the best environment. She apparently appreciated the importance of "conscious effort on the part of the child," for she cut asunder her weaving materials in order to encourage her son to persevere in his studies. These are but a few out-standing examples found in such books as "Life of Ancient Women" and "Book of Good Mothers," which have admirably preserved records of the achievements and self-sacrifices of so many distinguished women. One cannot but believe that these exceptionally good qualities of Chinese womanhood are due to proper education.

The virtues of Chinese women were always highly esteemed. They include chastity, fidelity, filial piety, kindness, and benevolence. Most unfortunately, some scholars in the past had believed that women's virtues need not go hand in hand with knowledge. And as a consequence, the importance of public education for women was relegated to the background. The life of the majority of girls in the so-called middle class presented a peculiar picture. Not many young girls went to the rural schools. If a girl was fortunate, she would be taught from five to about twelve years old, by a tutor, to read such books as "Instruction to Girls," "Four Books," and "Poetic Work of Tang Dynasty." As she reached a certain age, say twelve or thirteen, she usually began to be separated from her male relatives and associates. She learned domestic tasks under the guidance of her mother or grandmother, and was confined to the limited circle of her father's family until marriage. Even if she had initiative, originality, and unusual vigor of mind, she had little opportunity to develop self-activity.

So, if the Chinese women were not intellectually advanced, the trouble lies in their environment, not heredity, in their nurture, not nature. If they had the same opportunities enjoyed by their more fortunate Western sisters, they would undoubtedly be able to engage in the same professions with equal success. Yet how could we have expected this when we consider that the Chinese society in the past, like the cruel blacksmith who puts all kinds of metals in one melting pot, and all the mixture in one model, in order to secure uniformity of shape and form, demanded that the one chief educational aim for women, irrespective of their potentialities, should be motherhood? We are indeed far from objecting to the ideal of good motherhood, yet we equally believe it to be a human right, to man as well as to woman, to develop many-sided interests and all-round talents.

*Early History of Mission Education.* The first school of modern type for Chinese girls was opened in Singapore in 1825, nearly a century ago, by Miss Grant, an English lady. In 1834, a group of English women started an organization known as "The Society for Promoting Female Education in the East." The five treaty ports were opened to foreigners in 1842. Miss Aldersey went to Ningpo that year, and, two years later, established the first modern Chinese school for girls. Eleven other mission schools for girls were opened in the five treaty ports between 1847 and 1860. The American Board opened two girls' schools in Peking and Tientsin in 1864.

*Place of Women's Education in the Educational System.* The first girls' school established and supervised by Chinese was opened in Shanghai in 1897. Since 1901 more girls' schools privately financed have been opened in succession.\*

In the educational system established by the Manchu government in 1902, there was no place for women's education whatever. The changes introduced by the system of 1903 were merely nominal. From kindergarten to university (通儒院) was covered by a period of twenty-one years,—from the age of six or seven to twenty-six or twenty-seven. The educational needs of women were supposed to be met by home education ; so they were not provided for.

On March the eighth, 1907, the Chinese government, by an edict, issued thirty-six regulations for girls' normal schools and twenty for girls' elementary schools. On this memorial date women's education first had a place in the governmental educational system of China. A few salient facts may be noted as follows :

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\*From "Christian Education in China," a report of the China Educational Commission.



1. The highest educational institute for girls was the normal school,—there were neither middle schools nor colleges for women definitely established by the government.

2. The period for girls' elementary schools and normal schools was one year less than that for boys.

3. Education for boys and girls was entirely separate.

In 1912, after the establishment of the Republic, a new and better educational system was inaugurated. There were eighteen academic years including four years of lower elementary, three years of higher primary, four years of middle school, and six years of college. The chronological age was from six or seven to twenty-six or twenty-seven. Academic years for kindergarten and graduate university were not fixed. Under this system women's education was at least theoretically on exactly equal basis as that of men. The number of girls' schools and of girl students, however, are still far lower than those of boys' schools and boy students.

Dr. Ida Lewis, a great friend to China, who made researches on the education of Chinese women, gives the following summary of the decrees of the new government in 1912 in her book "The Education of Girls in China":

"When the educational laws for the Republic were drawn up in 1912, the Minister of Education issued this most important order: The firmness of the foundation upon which the Republic of China has been founded depends on education. We must, hereafter, make our best effort to develop and encourage women's education as well as that for men. We must emphasize and provide for social as well as school education."

"Soon followed the order that definitely established the ideal of universal education and the aim of the minimum length for school life. The law makes no distinction between girls and boys. '

In October, 1921, the Conference of Provincial Educational Associations held in Canton initiated a new educational system. In the same month of 1922, the Conference of the same organization held in Tsinan passed a resolution making a few alternations in this new system and definitely adopted it. This system consists of six years of Elementary Education, three years in Junior Middle Schools, three years in Senior Middle Schools, four years in Colleges, and three or four years in Technical Colleges. Years in Kindergarten and Graduate University are not fixed and Vocational and Normal Schools have the same standing as that of middle schools.

There are four important aims in this system :

1. To meet the growing needs in social evolution ;
2. To foster a democratic spirit in mass education ;
3. To aim at the development of individuality ; and
4. To promote the economic well-being of the people.

According to this system, women's education occupies an equally important place as that of men. Since 1922 there have already been a number of girls' schools which have adopted the "new system." By adopting this system, which aims at individual development and allows local flexibilities, there is a great hope for the improvement of China's educational work in general, and the advancement of women's education in particular.

*Elementary Education.*—Elementary education has the longest history, but the earliest statistics obtainable is that of 1907, as follows :

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of Girls' Schools</i>	<i>Number of Girl Students</i>	<i>Percentage of Girls to Total No. of Students</i>
1907	391	11,936	2%

The above data shows that among one hundred students of both sexes, there are only two girl students. In other words, the number of boy students is forty-nine times greater than that of girl students.

According to the educational statistics in the whole country from 1918 to 1919, the figures are as follows:

#### LOWER PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Girls' Percentage</i>
4,177,519	190,882	4,368,401	4.3%

#### ✓ HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Girls' Percentage</i>
421,893	24,744	446,637	5.54%

When we compare the statistics of 1907, in which the number of girl students was only 2% of the total number of students, with that of 1919, in which it is about 5% in average of lower and higher primary, it is evident that some progress has been made in twelve years.

Educational conditions vary in different provinces. The statistics of 1919 show that among 1,843 hsiens, 532 hsiens have no girl students in Lower Primary, and 1,328 have no girl students in Higher Primary.

The following table was made by the National Association for the Advancement of Education in May, 1923:

**HSIENS (縣) THAT HAVE NO GIRL STUDENTS IN LOWER AND  
HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS 1922-1923 STATISTICS**

TABLE I

<i>Province</i>	<i>Total No. of Hsiens in Each Province</i>	<i>Hsiens with No Lower Primary Girl Students</i>	<i>Hsiens with No Higher Primary Girl Students</i>
Peking District	20	1	12
Chihli . . .	120	4	61
Fengtien . .	57	8	21
Kirin. . . .	37	5	20
Heilungkiang .	35	8	17
Shantung . .	106	2	58
Honan . . . .	108	20	78
Shansi . . . .	105	3	44
Kiangsu. . . .	60	1	16
Anhwei . . . .	60	13	41
Kiangsi . . . .	81	37	64
Fukien . . . .	62	28	58
Chekiang . . .	75	3	16
Hupei . . . .	69	9	47
Hunan . . . .	75	24	48
Shensi . . . .	91	37	83
Kansu . . . .	77	37	73
Sinkiang . . .	40	36	40
Szechwan . . .	146	5	60
Kwangtung . .	94	30	71
Kwangsi . . . .	80	27	69
Yünnan . . . .	101	15	67
Kweichow . . .	80	64	70
Jehol . . . .	15	—	13
Suiyuan. . . .	8	4	8
Chahar . . . .	9	2	6
<b>TOTAL. . .</b>	<b>1,811</b>	<b>423</b>	<b>1,161</b>

The above statistics show that among 1843 Hsiens, there are still 423 Hsiens having no girl students in Lower Primary, and 1151 Hsiens having no girl students in Higher Primary.

These facts, which explain themselves, give us a distinct challenge.

The least progressive places mentioned above even have no girl students in elementary schools. The most advanced provinces are Kiangsu and Shansi.

The variations of conditions in cities are no less marked than those in provinces. Director Tao Tehi-shin made an investigation at Nanking, the capital city of Kiangsu province, in 1921, with the following results :

CITY OF NANKING

	<i>Boy Students</i>	<i>Girl Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Girls' Per- centage to Total</i>
Private Schools . . .	10905	1651	12556	13%
Kindergarten . . .	38	39	77	51%
Lower Primary . . .	7174	239	7413	32%
Higher Primary . . .	3086	710	3796	19%
Middle School . . .	3616	652	4268	15%
Univ. and Colleges . .	1024	97	1121	9%

The above statistics show that the higher the education, the less the girl students. To provide equal educational opportunities for men and women is our responsibility.

The following table (Table II) gives the results of an investigation made in Peking. It shows that the number of girl students in various types of schools has never been as high as that of boy students

Tables III and IV show the distribution of lower and higher primary schools in China. Mission elementary schools are not included in these tables: so another list will have to be made.

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN VARIOUS TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN PEKING INVESTIGATED BY DIRECTOR  
TAO AND MR. HSUEH, NOVEMBER, 1922. TABLE II

Schools	National			Public			Private			Mission and Foreign			Percentage of Girl Students		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	National	Public	Private and Foreign
Universities & Colleges	8,148	3	3,151	—	—	—	2,743	11	2,754	408	110	518	0.10	—	0.40
Technical Colleges	3,808	283	4,091	—	—	—	1,108	3	1,111	599	94	693	6.92	—	0.27
Normal Schools	—	—	—	244	71	315	96	149	245	—	—	—	—	22.54	60.82
Middle Schools	307	829	636	1,047	132	1,199	1,968	74	2,042	2,410	569	2,979	51.73	12.68	3.62
Vocational Schools	—	—	—	254	—	254	440	603	1,043	1,043	—	1,043	—	—	57.81
Higher Primary	—	—	—	343	—	343	—	—	—	613	—	613	—	—	—
Higher and Lower Primary	699	573	1,274	8,011	2,652	10,663	2,237	1,210	3,447	316	572	888	45.13	24.87	35.10
Lower Primary	—	—	—	3,164	1,066	4,230	4,481	832	5,313	190	291	481	—	25.20	15.66
Kindergarten	55	34	89	—	—	—	127	155	282	30	12	42	38.20	—	54.96
Free Schools	—	—	—	119	437	556	1,351	750	2,101	—	—	—	—	78.60	35.70
Other Schools	51	—	51	321	—	321	1,705	244	1,949	391	26	417	—	—	12.52
Half-Day Schools	—	—	—	1,746	—	1,746	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	8,068	1,224	9,292	15,249	4,378	19,627	16,256	4,031	20,287	6,000	1,674	7,674	13.17	22.31	19.87
															21.81

DISTRIBUTION OF LOWER PRIMARY STUDENTS IN CHINA  
1922-1923 DATA

TABLE III

<i>Province</i>	<i>Number of Students</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
Peking District . . . . .	75,048	4,172	79,220
Chihli . . . . .	497,414	22,265	519,679
Fengtien . . . . .	275,703	17,448	293,151
Kirin . . . . .	51,262	4,157	55,419
Heilungkiang . . . . .	42,029	4,161	46,190
Shantung . . . . .	712,250	15,797	728,047
Honan . . . . .	250,617	6,522	257,139
Shansi . . . . .	608,305	129,889	738,194
Kiangsu . . . . .	307,124	36,019	343,143
Anhwei . . . . .	69,056	4,391	73,447
Kiangsi . . . . .	180,260	5,595	185,855
Fukien . . . . .	115,335	3,713	119,048
Chekiang . . . . .	354,145	19,781	373,926
Hupeh . . . . .	183,542	6,620	190,162
Hunan . . . . .	256,924	22,805	279,729
Shensi . . . . .	185,415	3,544	188,959
Kansu . . . . .	99,978	1,832	101,810
Sinkiang . . . . .	2,980	86	3,066
Szechwan . . . . .	495,716	29,209	524,961
Kwangtung . . . . .	300,101	11,843	311,944
Kwangsi . . . . .	152,325	6,729	159,054
Yünnan . . . . .	147,495	7,766	155,260
Kweichow . . . . .	10,629	2,728	53,357
Jehol . . . . .	14,448	973	15,421
Suiyuan . . . . .	7,799	144	7,943
Chahar . . . . .	9,916	371	10,287
<b>TOTAL . . . . .</b>	<b>5,505,816</b>	<b>368,560</b>	<b>5,814,411</b>

DISTRIBUTION OF HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN CHINA  
1922-1923 DATA TABLE IV

Province	Number of Schools			Number of Students		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Peking District	71	9	155	4,801	767	5,568
Chihli . . .	446	85	531	32,192	1,338	34,824
Fengtien . . .	355	45	400	25,140	2,240	27,380
Kirin . . .	91	17	108	5,919	643	6,562
Heilungkiang . . .	59	19	78	4,028	769	4,797
Shantung . . .	604	71	675	36,632	1,807	38,439
Honan . . .	327	38	365	21,512	1,036	22,548
Shansi . . .	383	67	450	37,737	2,792	40,529
Kiangsu . . .	454	96	550	35,373	5,583	40,956
Anhui . . .	334	25	359	17,442	728	18,170
Kiangsi . . .	438	17	455	22,345	420	22,765
Fukien . . .	683	23	706	25,077	719	25,796
Chekiang . . .	648	93	741	33,519	2,847	36,366
Hupoh . . .	204	30	234	14,417	1,371	15,788
Hunan . . .	505	27	532	32,518	1,569	34,087
Shensi . . .	208	13	221	16,346	1,469	17,815
Kansu . . .	210	5	215	12,011	88	12,099
Sinkiang . . .	18	—	18	468	—	468
Szechwan . . .	842	110	952	45,431	4,684	50,115
Kwangtung . . .	1,314	35	1,349	62,220	2,253	64,473
Kwangsi . . .	443	23	466	23,811	872	29,683
Yunnan . . .	335	32	367	22,654	915	23,569
Kweichow . . .	241	5	246	12,070	131	11,896
Jehol . . .	32	2	34	1,402	99	1,501
Suiyuan . . .	10	—	10	435	—	435
Chahar . . .	16	2	19	808	42	850
TOTAL . . .	9,271	889	10,236	546,308	35,182	582,479

NOTE: Mission schools are not included in this table.

<i>No. of Girl Students in Lower Primary :</i>	<i>Total No. of Boys and Girls:</i>	<i>Girls to Total</i>
368,560	5,814,375	6.34%

<i>No. of Girl Students in Higher Primary :</i>		
35,182	582,479	6.04%

TOTAL: 403,742	6,396,891	AVERAGE: 6.31%
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The statistics in mission elementary schools in "Christian Education in China" gives the following figures:

<i>No. of Schools</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>	<i>Proportion of Boys to Girls</i>
Lower Primary 5,637	151,582	68 to 32
Higher Primary 962	32,899	71 to 29

According to Tables III and IV, among one hundred students in elementary schools there are only six girls. Co-education in lower primary is universal, but in higher primary it is more or less nominal. In promoting women's education we must start from elementary education. To find out the cause for the numerical inequality of sexes in school attendance, and to solve the problem, are the important tasks of our educators.

*Girls' Secondary Education.*—Secondary Education constitutes the center of any educational system. The middle school students are the selected members of elementary schools, and will be the future factors of colleges and universities,—they are also prospective teachers, responsible home builders and social workers or reformers. The young students in this period formulate their ideals of life, choose their professions, and fix their personal habits and social attitudes. Most unfortunately girls' secondary education in China is such that it is unable to satisfy the social needs.

In the statistics made previous to 1919, there were only nine girls' middle schools with 622 students and 132 teachers. But there must be some private middle schools for girls not reported.

The Students' Movement of 1919 in which both men and women took part, gave a new impetus to China's educational work, and the girl students, in response to the pressing social needs, were more eager than ever to further their education. Several government universities, together with some Christian universities, have been opened to girl students

since that year. More girls' middle schools have been founded, and some girls' elementary schools changed into middle schools. Besides new private girls' middle schools, cities like Shanghai and Wusih have also established city middle schools for girls with good standing and large attendance.

The missionary educators have long realized the importance of secondary education for girls. According to an article on Girls' Middle Schools by Mrs. Thurston, the President of Ginling College, "there are 86 schools reported in 15 provinces, and in these schools there are 2,569 girls; this means an average of only 30. There are 42 schools which have sent students on to College,—to Yenching and Ginling, the two Union Colleges for Women."

The following list of Mission Middle Schools is reported in the book "Ginling College, a Six Year Review" (1915-1921).

#### GINLING PREPARATORY SCHOOLS

Aldersey Girls' School (Presbyterian)	Ningpo
Amoy Girls' High School	Amoy
Baldwin Memorial School	Nanchang
Bridgman Memorial School	Shanghai
Canton Christian College, Middle School	Canton
Chengt'u Methodist Episcopal Girls' School	Chengt'u
Chinkiang Girls' School (M. E.)	Chinkiang
Christian Girls' School	Nanking
Eliza Yates School	Shanghai
Hangchow Union Girls' School	Hangchow
Hunan Union Girls' School	Changsha
Hwa Nang Middle School (South China College)	Foochow
Hwei Wen Methodist Girls' School	Nanking
Julia Mackenzie Middle School	Yangchow

Keen Memorial School	Tientsin
Laura Haygood Normal School	Soochow
Luchowfu Christian Girls' School	Luchowfu
McTyiere School	Shanghai
Mary Farnham School	Shanghai
Mary Vaughn High School	Hangchow
Ming Deh Girls' School (Presbyterian)	Nanking
Rulison High School	Kiukiang
Sarah Batchelor Memorial Girls' School	Ningpo
Shaowu Girls' School	Shaowu
St. Hilda's School	Wuchang
St. Faith's School	Peking
St. Mary's Hall	Shanghai
True Light Middle School	Canton
Virginia School	Huchow
Wei Ling Girls' School	Soochow
Wen Shan Girls' School (Ponasang)	Foochow
Y. W. C. A. Physical Training School	Shanghai

"The statistics also show that graduates of these larger middle schools continue to study. About one-third are reported as going on. A much larger proportion go into teaching. The medium is 70% and large numbers of girls who do not graduate teach for some time before or after marriage."

According to "Christian Education in China" (1921-1922), the latest figures give a total enrollment in secondary schools of 2,569 girls and 12,644 boys. The number of boys in Christian middle schools is nearly five times that of girls.

Table V shows the distribution of middle schools in China. The data does not include mission secondary schools, the statistics of which have already been set forth in the preceding paragraph.

## DISTRIBUTION OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN CHINA

TABLE V 1922-1923 DATA

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>			<i>Number of Students</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
Peking District	28	5	33	4,646	823	5,469
Chihli . . . .	28	1	29	7,434	46	7,480
Fengtien . . .	22	2	24	3,558	154	3,712
Kirin . . . .	7	—	7	960	—	960
Heilungkiang .	5	1	6	594	35	629
Shantung . .	23	1	24	6,199	92	6,291
Honan . . . .	19	—	19	3,036	—	3,036
Shansi . . . .	27	—	27	6,910	—	6,910
Kiangsu . . .	28	9	37	8,263	953	9,216
Anhui . . . .	13	—	13	1,920	18	1,938
Kiangsi . . .	20	—	20	4,165	—	4,165
Fukien . . . .	21	1	22	3,662	111	3,773
Chekiang . .	23	1	24	5,011	120	5,131
Hupei . . . .	25	1	26	5,338	186	5,524
Hunan . . . .	46	1	47	8,867	86	8,953
Shensi . . . .	9	—	9	1,829	—	1,829
Kansu . . . .	5	—	5	777	—	777
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . .	59	—	59	9,581	—	9,581
Kwangtung . .	58	1	59	8,639	468	9,107
Kwangsi . . .	26	—	26	3,921	—	3,921
Yunnan . . .	20	1	21	2,783	157	2,940
Kweichow . .	6	—	6	1,664	—	1,664
Jehol . . . .	2	—	2	178	—	178
Suiyuan . . .	1	—	1	102	—	102
Chahar . . . .	1	—	1	99	—	99
TOTAL . . . .	522	25	547	100,136	3,249	103,385

According to Table V, there are only twenty-five girls' middle schools reported. Among 103,385 students, there are 3,249 girls,—a percentage of 3.14%. If we pay attention only to girls' elementary education and coeducational colleges, and neglect girls' secondary education, it is just like expecting a person to go to the top floor of a building without providing stairways. Girls' secondary education will be the key to our new educational system. If it is properly promoted, elementary education will be more prosperous, and college education more successful.

✓ *Normal Education for Girls.*—The Government has emphasized normal schools ever since the pioneer days of women's education in China. The provincial normal schools are established and financed by each province. The students pay neither tuition nor fees for boarding or housing. This is a unique feature in China's educational enterprise, and proves that China is earnest to spread popular education.

The requirement for the students entering the normal school is that they must be graduated from higher primary schools. So a graduate of the normal school has seven years of lower and higher primary education and five years of teachers' training in the normal,—altogether twelve years of schooling, equivalent to those of an American senior high school graduate. Under the auspices of each normal school there is always a good-sized elementary school for normal students to practice teaching.

The writer has made an investigation in the three Provincial Normal Schools for girls in Kiangsu. The Third Provincial Normal School has only been established for two years in a rather unprogressive city; so there are only two classes in the normal. Both the First and the Second Provincial Girls' Normal Schools were established in 1912 under the Republic, the former being in Nanking, and the latter in

Soochow, two representative girls' normal schools in China. Under their auspices, there are middle schools, kindergarten teachers training schools, and elementary schools. The three normal schools all have women principals who have been trained in normal education either in China or abroad.

## NUMBER OF NORMAL STUDENTS

Year	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922
First Normal	76	113	125	171	199	208	184	210	236	253	257
Second Normal	112	156	172	173	221	220	219	221	221	222	223
Third Normal										40	73

NO. OF MIDDLE  
SCHOOL STUDENTS

Year	1920	1921	1922
First Normal	45	115	155
Second Normal	48	96	144

NO. OF KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS  
TRAINING STUDENTS

Year	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922
First Normal	31	45	40	42	37	54

## NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Year	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922
First Normal Elementary	150	72	130	203	352	317	302	269	318	255	332
Second Normal Elementary		65	88	96	122	148	186	224	265	325	392

OCCUPATIONS OF GRADUATES OF THESE NORMAL SCHOOLS  
FIRST NORMAL SCHOOL

<i>Year</i>	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
Getting Higher Education							1	3
Teaching	29	29	50	82	111	140	170	195
Staying Home			2	2	2	2	3	6

SECOND NORMAL SCHOOL

<i>Year</i>	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922
Getting Higher Education	6%	5%	6%	4%	5%	6%	8%	10%
Teaching	75%	76%	78%	73%	79%	78%	73%	73%
Staying Home	19%	19%	16%	23%	16%	16%	19%	17%

The above statistics show that the largest number of students goes into teaching, and there is a steady growth in the number of graduates who are getting higher education.

From 1921-1922, the First Normal School had five classes in the normal, three in the middle school, three in the kindergarten teachers training, and nine in the elementary school; and the Second Girls' Normal School had five classes in the normal, three in the middle school, nine in the elementary school, and one class for kindergarten. Woman teachers in those schools were almost equal in number to men teachers. The average annual expense in these three normal schools for each student was \$179 Mexican. The graduates of these schools are rich in their spirit of service.

Table VI shows the distribution of normal schools in China.

## DISTRIBUTION OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN CHINA

TABLE VI 1922-1923 DATA

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>			<i>Number of Students</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
Peking District	4	2	6	541	271	812
Chihli . . .	23	5	28	2,212	635	2,847
Fengtien . . .	22	5	27	2,051	413	2,464
Kirin . . .	5	1	6	1,006	151	1,157
Heilungkiang .	1	1	2	200	116	316
Shantung . . .	10	2	12	1,921	365	2,286
Honan . . .	12	1	13	1,420	187	1,607
Shansi . . .	9	5	14	2,629	813	3,442
Kiangsu . . .	15	9	24	3,751	770	4,521
Anhwei . . .	7	2	9	1,335	402	1,737
Kiangsi . . .	9	1	10	1,696	108	1,804
Fukien . . .	8	1	9	1,003	177	1,180
Chekiang . . .	11	8	19	2,498	541	3,039
Hupoh . . .	3	1	4	807	136	943
Hunan . . .	10	9	19	1,856	771	2,627
Shensi . . .	2	1	3	656	50	706
Kansu . . .	10	2	12	664	49	713
Sinkiang . . .	1	—	1	85	—	85
Szechwan . . .	14	6	20	1,517	498	2,015
Kwangtung . .	14	2	16	1,208	193	1,401
Kwangsi . . .	4	—	4	641	—	641
Yunnan . . .	10	2	12	1,345	40	1,385
Kweichow . . .	1	1	2	227	38	265
Jehol . . .	1	—	1	121	—	121
Suiyuan . . .	1	—	1	87	—	87
Chahar . . .	1	—	1	76	—	76
TOTAL . . .	208	67	275	31,553	6,724	38,277



According to the above table there are 6,724 girls among 38,277 normal students. The percentage of girl students in normal schools is 17.57% and is highest as compared with the percentage of girls in other schools. But if we expect all children of school age to be in schools, the normal school students and graduates must be immensely increased

✓ *Girls' Vocational Education.*—Most of the vocational schools for girls are privately established. The chief branches of vocations are handwork, including embroidery both Chinese and foreign, dressmaking, and methods and practice of raising silkworms. Among other branches are nursing, medicine, physical training and commercial courses. Teaching is of course the chief profession for women. Schools for nursing are always connected with hospitals. Dr. Mary Stone and Dr. Phebe Stone, two Chinese sisters with American training, have established a splendid hospital by the name of Bethel Hospital in Shanghai. In this hospital there are about one hundred students studying nursing at present. The graduates are working in hospitals throughout the country with remarkable records.

The following statistics show the growth in number of girls' vocational schools :

<i>Year</i>	<i>Total No. of Vocational Schools</i>	<i>No. of Girls' Vocational Schools</i>	<i>Percentage of Girls' Vocational to total</i>
1916	531	21	3.95%
1921	719	44	6.04%
1922	1,353	158	11.68%

When the National Association for the Advancement of Education held its Conference in Tsinau in July, 1922, a resolution was passed to encourage the establishment of

more vocational schools for girls. In a Joint Conference of Education and Industry in Kiangsu (江蘇教實聯合會) on April 10, 1923, a resolution was passed to establish a Provincial Girls' Vocational School. The Conference has decided to request the governor of Kiangsu to put this project in the budget of 1923, and it is expected to have this school opened in the coming fall in the capital of the province.

The following table shows the distribution of girls' secondary and elementary vocational schools in China:

BOY STUDENTS AND GIRL STUDENTS IN VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS  
COMPARED      TABLE VII

<i>No. of Students</i>	<i>Secondary Vocational Schools (1922-1923)</i>	<i>Elementary Vocational Schools (1919)</i>
No. of Boy Students	18,908	18,710
No. of Girl Students	1,452	1,757
Total No. of Students	20,360	20,467

According to the above table the percentage of girl students to the total is 7.13% in secondary vocational schools, and 8.58% in elementary vocational schools.

The scope of vocational education for women is ever enlarging. The realization of such a need by women and the recognition of the importance by the public are significant signs of progress in vocational education.

✓ *Women's Higher Education.*—The only governmental institution for purely women's higher education is Peking Teachers College for Women. The entrance requirement is graduation from middle or normal schools. In April, 1923, there were 236 students in the College; under its auspices, there were 296 in the Middle School, and also a large attendance in the Elementary School and Kindergarten. There are

fifteen classes in ten Departments; namely, 1. Educational Philosophy, 2. Chinese Literature, 3. English Literature, 4. History, 5. Mathematics and Physics, 6. Physics and Chemistry, 7. Biology and Geology, 8. Home Economics, 9. Physical Training, 10. Music.

## NUMBER OF STUDENTS\*

<i>Year</i>	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922
Teachers College . .	215	202	252	248	212	234	236
Middle School . . .	36	65	193	255	262	292	320

## TEACHERS COLLEGE GRADUATES

<i>Year</i>	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Getting Higher Education . .	30%	30%	20%	20%	10%
Teaching . . . .	60%	60%	80%	80%	90%
Staying Home	10%	10%	—	—	—

## MIDDLE SCHOOL GRADUATES

<i>Year</i>	1919	1920
Getting Higher Education . .	90%	95%
Teaching . . . .	5%	
Staying Home	5%	5%

The students in the Teachers College are sent and recommended by various provinces, and the college expenditures are limited by the Ministry of Education; so the growth of the number of students cannot be very rapid. The total expense of the College from 1921-1922 was \$141,732 Mexican, or \$600.50 per capita. The students do not pay tuition, housing, or boarding. The numbers of graduates

\*NOTE: The writer obtained the above statistics through correspondence in April, 1923.

that are getting higher education and that are teaching or working are ever increasing.

There are only three women's colleges, and they are Christian colleges

<i>Name of College</i>	<i>Place</i>	<i>Number of Students</i>
Yenching	Peking	118
Ginling	Nanking	70
Hwa Nang	Foochow	30
		<hr/>
		TOTAL 218

Yenching College (formerly Union College for Women in Peking) was started in 1908. Ginling College was opened in 1915, three classes were graduated, and the A. B. degree was conferred under the Regents of the University of the State of New York. Hwa Nang College, formerly South China College, began work above the middle school in 1914.

*Coeducation.*—In 1907, the Government issued the following regulations: Article 19, "In elementary schools, if there are enough girl students to form another class, boys and girls shall have separate classes. But the first and second years of elementary schools shall be exceptions." Article 16, "Higher primary schools shall have separate classes for boys and girls." According to these articles, in lower primary schools, from the third year up, boys and girls are not to be in the same class. In higher primary schools, boys and girls may be in the same school, but not in the same class.

During recent years, the lower primary schools are practically completely coeducational. From higher primary schools up, it is not yet common to have boys and girls in the same class. Since 1919 a number of universities, colleges, and even high schools, have become coeducational. La Universitato Utopia (formerly Lacademie Utopia), a private institution, was opened to women as early as 1902. In 1920, the National Teachers College in Nanking, now

Southeastern University, and National University of Peking began to admit women; and in 1921, Nankai College in Tientsin became coeducational. Since then practically all large universities and colleges have followed the same examples.

<i>Name of Institution</i>	<i>Place</i>	<i>Number of Girl Students</i>	<i>Number of Boy Students</i>
National University of Peking	Peking	11	2,246
National Southeastern University (Nanking Teachers College). . . . .	Nanking	44	812
Nankai College . . . . .	Tientsin	23	260
Peking Teachers College . . . . .	Peking	16	794
University of China in Peking	Peking	14	1,626
Amoy University . . . . .	Amoy	4	237
Shanghai College of Commerce (Southeastern University). . . . .	Shanghai	10	167

NOTE: The writer obtained the above statistics in April, 1923, through correspondence.

Then there are a number of Christian colleges which are coeducational. One woman was graduated from Canton Christian College in 1921. Shanghai Baptist College admitted women in 1920, and Yale-in-China had women students in the premedical course in 1921. Peking Union Medical College admitted women in 1919 or even earlier, but its present enrollment cannot be obtained.

<i>Name of Institution</i>	<i>Place</i>	<i>No. of Girl Students</i>
Canton Christian College . . . . .	Canton	23
Shanghai Baptist College . . . . .	Shanghai	9
Yale-in-China . . . . .	Changsha	2

NOTE: The above data is from "Christian Education in China."

Table VIII shows the universities and colleges in China, and Table IX gives a summary of school education in China. The data has been secured from the National Association for the Advancement of Education.

## UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE EDUCATION IN CHINA (I)

TABLE VIII 1922-1923 DATA

<i>Kind of Schools</i>	<i>No. of Schools</i>			<i>Number of Students</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Fe- male</i>	<i>To- tal</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Fe- male</i>	<i>Total</i>
University . . . . .	34	1	35	12,692	431	13,098
Teachers College . . . . .	7	1	8	2,809	284	3,093
Agricultural College . . . . .	7		7	1,271		1,271
Technical College . . . . .	13		13	2,018	8	2,026
Commercial College . . . . .	8		8	1,887	3	1,890
Medical College . . . . .	7		7	815	17	832
Law College . . . . .	33		33	10,851	13	10,864
Others . . . . .	14		14	1,650	131	1,806
TOTAL . . . . .	123	2	125	33,993	887	34,880

## UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE EDUCATION IN CHINA (II)

	<i>No. of Schools</i>			<i>Number of Students</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Fe- male</i>	<i>To- tal</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Fe- male</i>	<i>Total</i>
National . . . . .	29	1	30	10,130	405	10,535
Provincial . . . . .	48		48	9,794	7	9,801
Private . . . . .	29		29	10,399	125	10,524
Mission & Foreign . . . . .	17	1	18	3,670	350	4,020
TOTAL . . . . .	123	2	125	33,993	887	34,880

NOTE: Ginling College and eleven other colleges and universities are not reported here.

## SUMMARY TABLE OF SCHOOL EDUCATION IN CHINA

TABLE IX 1922-1923 DATA

<i>Kind of Schools</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>
Universities and Colleges . . . .	34,033*	847	34,880	2.42
Normal Schools . .	31,553	6,724	38,277	17.56
Normal Institutes .	5,170	399	5,569	7.16
Middle Schools . .	100,136	3,249	103,385	3.14
Secondary Vocational	18,908	1,452	20,360	7.13
Elementary Vocational	18,710	1,757	20,467	8.52
Higher Primary . .	547,297	35,182	582,479	6.04
Lower Primary . .	5,445,815	368,560	5,814,375	6.33
Total . . .	6,201,622	418,170	6,619,792	6.31

According to Table VIII, among 34,880 college students there are 887 girls. This means a percentage of only 2.54%. To encourage higher education for women in China is therefore of supreme importance.

*Woman Students Studying Abroad.* A large number of woman students are studying in the United States, and the number is probably greater than that of woman students studying in all other foreign countries. The statistics of students studying in European countries is not available. There are two lists of Chinese woman students in America printed under separate auspices.

<i>Institutions</i>	1919	<i>Courses</i>	1920
Columbia	7	Liberal Arts	15
California	5	Medicine, Nursing, Pharmacy	11
Chicago	5	Education	5
Michigan	5	Chemistry	5
New York University	4	Physical Education	3
Ohio Wesleyan	4	Sociology	3
Wellesley	4	Biology	2
Mt. Holyoke	3	Economics	2
Bryn Mawr	2	Fine Arts	2
Western	2	History	2
Northwestern	2	Home Economics	2
Other Colleges	20	Kindergarten	2
		Other courses	13
(one each)	—		—
	TOTAL 63		TOTAL 65

Most of the students get B. A. or B. S. degrees before returning home. Several have obtained M. A. degrees and a few got M. D. and Ph. D. A list given by "Who's Who of American Returned Students," printed by Tsing Hua College in 1917, shows ten woman students with B. A. or B. S. degrees; three with M. A., and two with M. D. There are many more girl students studying in America during the last six or seven years. In July, 1921, Dr. Mabel P. H. Lee obtained her Ph. D. degree in Economics in Columbia University, and Dr. C. C. Wong received her Ph. D. degree in Chemistry in University of Chicago a few years earlier. Dr. Mary Stone, a splendid physician, got her M. D. as early as 1896, from University of Michigan.

The Chinese indemnity fund has been used to establish Tsing Hua College for sending students to study in America. There are also private students, and scholarships in American colleges and universities given to Chinese students. These



students carry back not only Western scientific knowledge but also American ideals. The friendship of the two sister Republics on the Pacific has been directly or indirectly strengthened.

Tsing Hua scholarships include all expenses of traveling and five years of study. Since 1914, Tsing Hua College has sent girl students abroad. It is supposed to send ten girls every other year, but even this small number has never been regularly kept.

1914		1915		1916		1917		1918		1919		1920		1921		1922	
<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>
86	9	39	—	45	10	42	—	73	9	69	—	79	—	58	10	89	—

The Tsing Hua girl students have received Phi Beta Kappa and other honors from Vassar, Wellesley, and other colleges and universities, but Tsing Hua College seems always reluctant in sending more girls abroad. The following statistics will bear out this statement.

#### NUMBER OF STUDENTS

Tsing Hua boy students studying in America at		
present . . . . .		455
Students (all boys) studying in Tsing Hua College		
at present . . . . .		531
TOTAL .		986

Girl students sent abroad in nine years . . . . .	38
Girl students studying in America at present . . . . .	21
Percentage of girl students having studied in America to the total no. of Chinese students in America . . . . .	5.8%
Percentage of girl students studying in America to the total no. of Chinese students in America . . . . .	4.6%
Percentage of girl students sent abroad to total no. of boy students in America and in College . . . . .	2.1%

## EXPENSES

Total expense of Scholarship in America . . . . .	1,150,000
Expense in Tsing Hua College . . . . .	346,568

TOTAL 1,496,568

Scholarship of girl students . . . . .	34,860
Percentage of girls' scholarship to the total scholarship . . . . .	3.03%
Percentage of girls' scholarship to the total scholarship with college expense . . . . .	2.33%

It has been amply proved, that as a rule, the girl students studying abroad are eager and quick to learn. Most likely, presidents, deans, and professors of American colleges and universities, who have had experience with Chinese girls, would be willing to testify how remarkably well the Chinese girl students have done their work.

We wish to see the Tsing Hua fund spent in fair proportion in educating both Chinese boys and girls, and we are not a little surprised by the unreasonable suggestion made by Tsing Hua College that she will stop sending girl students abroad. Challenged by the Committee of Women

Education in "The National Association for the Advancement of Education," "National Association of Women's Rights Movement in China," "Association of Women's Suffrage," "Kiangsu Educational Association," and other institutions, Tsing Hua College has to yield, and has decided to send five girl students in 1923, only half of the number provided for by the original plan of the College. It is our earnest hope that within a short period Tsing Hua College will be coeducational, and the number of girl students sent abroad will be proportionally equal to that of boys.

### SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

A new philosophy in the twentieth century tells us to rely upon the scientific method in treating any field of work. To the educators the scientifically established intelligence tests have come to be an important guide. The results of the tests on the mental traits of sex show that the differences between the sexes are in no case as great as the individual differences within either sex. Professors Hollinworth and Montague made measurements of two thousand new-born infants, one thousand of each sex, and the result shows no sex difference whatsoever. Dr. E. L. Thorndike, the great psychologist, in his "Educational Psychology" sums up the experimental results on sex differences in the following words:

"The individual differences within either sex so enormously outweigh any difference between the sexes that for all practical purposes any such difference may be disregarded. . . . As is well known the experiments of the past generation in educating women have shown their equal competence in school work of elementary, secondary, and collegiate grade. . . . The psychologist's measurements lead to the conclusion that this equality of achievement comes from an equality of natural gifts, not from an overstraining of the lesser talents of women."

Chinese women of the past had a long and splendid record of achievement. Both from empirical and scientific points of view, the educational aptitudes of women in China are self-evident. Is it just and humane, then, to leave women's education undeveloped and neglected?

Let us now summarize the Chinese schools of different grades as follows :

*Elementary Education.*—In order to develop popular education in our country, we must have more elementary schools and encourage girls to attend schools. The most recent statistics show the meager percentage of 6.33% girl students in lower primary schools and 6.04% in higher primary schools as compared with the total number of elementary students. We expose the statistics as the basis of adequate reforms. In order to attain our educational aim, we must first have educational taxation, and provide for free education in all parts of China. Compulsory education is indispensable in securing full school attendance of all school age children, girls as well as boys.

*Secondary Education.*—In the cultivation of better and fuller citizenship, in forming higher national and international ideals, in producing finer and more efficient workers in all fields, in training good home builders, who will make Chinese homes a source of incalculable influence in shaping the future of the community and of the nation, secondary education is the best medium. The secondary schools for Chinese girls now are far from being adequate to supply the demands.

A number of boys' middle schools are coeducational now. In fact, this is only a spontaneous response to the demand for a wider field of girls' secondary education, in view of the small number of girls' middle schools. But the middleschool girls have their specific needs in courses of study, and their psychological and physiological development is also different. In the coeducational middle schools, the great majority of principals and teachers are men, the curriculum is planned for boys, and even the school equipments

are for boys. When these are a few women teachers, they have little authority. With the great inequality of the number of boy and girl students, the girls have a very strained school life, and can never take full advantage of the educational opportunities provided for by the school. How can these young girls, who are quick in response, keen in observation, good in character, rich in sociability, alert and active, earnest and sincere, have the fullest development under such conditions! No matter how many coeducational middle schools there might be, we still want to have many more good girls' middle schools.

The question naturally rises: Since there are so few girls' middle schools, how can the girls enter colleges and universities? It is true they have little opportunities, but their eagerness to further their education is a great asset. They make up their English in mission schools, get a tutor to coach them mathematics, burn midnight oil to make up their deficiencies, and they are soon able to get into college without going through the regular academic procedure. This, however, should only be a temporary phenomenon in a transitional period. The pressing need for more girls' secondary schools is unquestionable.

*Normal Education for Women.*—In an educational system, both normal and elementary education occupy a place most strategic, and in both normal and elementary education, women play a part of paramount importance.

It is universally recognized that women are more fit to be teachers, especially to younger students, than men. There are in China approximately seventy million school age children. According to the most recent statistics there are only 6,396,854 students\* in elementary schools. Millions of

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\* Missionary and elementary vocational school students not counted.

children are in urgent need of elementary school education with professionally trained teachers, who, in an ideal way, should consist of women well educated from normal schools.

In middle schools there is also a great demand for women teachers. Only more women's normal colleges and colleges with sufficient courses of education can supply such demands.

From the social point of view, all social directors in schools should be women. It is the belief of many educators that boys and girls in their school days should have more proper relationships which will lay the foundation for fruitful coöperations in their future work. China is in a period of reconstruction. Some new social theories which may be difficult for some Western countries to put into practice, may easily become realities in China. There is a great future for Chinese women. Either as a teacher or as a mother, she will be an educator to the citizens of a new nation.

*Vocational Education for Women.*—The present tendency of China indicates that the scope of vocational and professional work participated by both men and women will be much larger than before. At present schools of vocational training for men are more numerous than those for women. Not infrequently when women want to share the opportunity, they can neither satisfy their special needs nor work joyously along their own line of interests.

Dr. L. S. Hollingworth in "Vocational Psychology" says, "So far as is at present known, women are as competent intellectually as men are, to undertake any and all human vocations." If we abandon some of our traditional ideas, and respect human energy and intellectual talents, we cannot but admit that women should have their proper place in a vocational system of education.

Not only should women's vocational schools be more numerous, and all men's opportunities for vocational training

opened to women, but also both junior and senior middle schools and colleges, together with universities, should have "Vocational Guidance." Liberal and vocational courses of study ought to go hand in hand,—liberal education to enable individuals to respond to the numerous calls in a dynamic society, and vocational education to develop their special capacities to attain economic freedom and social fitness. Too early a specialization makes one's life "cut and dried," while too general a knowledge makes one impractical. When liberal and vocational training go side by side, each helps the other.

It is a general conception that as a rule women are passive. In the twentieth century, we have discovered the fallacy of this misleading conception. The most essential principle of vocational guidance of women should be the respect of personality and individuality. It is Kant's philosophy that a person should never treat others as a means to an end, but respect them as an end in themselves. It is a modern psychologist's belief that the innate individual power is immensely greater than it appears. The selection of vocation should always be based upon one's own motive and interest, and according to one's own talent. When one is going to a "blind alley" in one's vocational training, it is the duty of "Vocational Guidance" to help one out. In this way, efficiency will be secured, and results will be more fruitful.

One of the important professions, besides teaching, is working in the fields of social service. In China, industrialism is already dawning, and such problems as child labor, women's employment, long hours, low wages, and poor working conditions should be analyzed, and if possible, solved. In the community, the improvement of housing, diet, and public health in general should engage the most serious attention of social workers. Without doubt there are a great many girls whose interests and talents qualify them to be professional social workers; and to meet such needs high schools, colleges, universities, and particularly vocational

schools should offer courses in theoretical and applied sociology and technique of social service.

*College Education for Women.*—Although there are a number of coeducational colleges and universities, China has not yet had a women's college of her own. The girls of conservative families are often deprived of the opportunity of going to coeducational colleges, no matter how talented they are. Our foreign friends have kindly planned for the higher education of women, and there are three mission colleges for women and a few coeducational mission colleges. But some families, due to their religious views, are not willing to send their girls to those institutions.

The Committee for Women's Education in the National Association for the Advancement of Education has already proposed a definite plan of establishing a National University for Women to the Trustees and the special Committee on School Fund of the same Association, and the plan has been endorsed. It is hoped that in the near future our National University for Women will be an intellectual center in the East.

With a college education, a woman will be able to have not merely a vocation but a profession, and she will be able to shoulder more weighty responsibilities. With liberal education and professional training, she will be more qualified to respond to the many calls in her community and nation. In building up China's new social structure, her contribution in the world of thought and deed will be invaluable.

*Woman Students Studying Abroad.*—To secure the exchange of Oriental and Occidental ideals, to obtain the best result in economic intercourse, and to promote friendship in the family of nations, education is the most effective medium. Both Great Britain and France have many a time mentioned the proposition of using China's indemnity funds for the



education of Chinese students. Let us hope such a project will become a reality in the near future. Let us hope Chinese girls will have an equal opportunity in sharing the blessings of this scholarship.

In conclusion, the scope of women's education in China must be widened to meet the growing needs of her social reforms. In the past Chinese women had been neither systematically nor universally educated, and a girl's education was considered rather as a luxury than a necessity. To-day, with the advent of the Chinese Republic, women's education can hardly be ignored any further. A democracy, as Professor Dewey says, is not merely a form of government, but primarily "a mode of associated living, conjoint communicated experience," therefore no woman can be suffered to remain ignorant without profoundly affecting the experience and lives of the four hundred millions. Unless all women are able to read, children's opportunity to read would be greatly handicapped, and illiteracy, difficult to eliminate. The last few decades have merely marked the beginning of women's new education in China. We gladly testify to the fact that in this period, through China's own initiative, and through the disinterested coöperation of her missionary friends, considerable progress has been made in an enterprise which, if mentioned half a century ago, would be looked upon with distrust and skepticism. And we confidently assert that women's education determines the future of China.

# HIGHER EDUCATION IN CHINA

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## HIGHER EDUCATION IN CHINA

### 1. HISTORICAL SURVEY

Modern higher education made its appearance in China in the middle of the nineteenth century. Exigencies arising from foreign intercourse and the need of experts with professional and technical training early compelled the Government to spasmodic efforts in establishing schools and colleges chiefly along linguistic and technical lines. In 1862, the Foreign Office founded a school for the study of modern languages, known as Tung Wen Kuan, placed under the charge first of Sir Robert Hart and then of Dr. W. A. P. Martin. In 1867, a training center for mechanical engineers was created in conjunction with the Kiangnan Arsenal; at the same time naval schools were established in Foochow; a telegraph college came into existence at Tientsin in 1879; in 1890 the first Imperial Naval College appeared at Nanking; at Wuchang in 1892 a mining and engineering college was founded; and an army medical college was established in Tientsin a year later.

As early as 1887, the great viceroy Li Hung-chang formulated a plan for a university at Tientsin, now called the Peiyang University, with Dr. Charles D. Tenney, an American missionary, at its head. The Nanyang College was founded in Shanghai in 1897. Both of these institutions, although their character has been changed considerably since their first establishment, have nevertheless weathered all political storms that have been raging over China during the last twenty years. The founding of Shansi University has a singular history. During the unfortunate Boxer outbreak in 1900, a number of Christian missionaries were killed in

Shansi. When the trouble was over, indemnities were demanded by the Powers for properties destroyed and lives killed. But certain missionary bodies refused absolutely to take any compensation. Animated by a spirit of pious devotion and sacrifice, they were not willing that the blood of martyrs should be paid for in money. At this juncture, Dr. Timothy Richard came to the Government with the suggestion that the fund should be turned to the purpose of founding a university in Shansi. The plan appealed to all parties concerned and was soon realized.

In 1920, a national system of modern education was first seriously taken in hand when Chang Pai Hsi was appointed to draw up a scheme of public education comprising all grades of schools from the kindergarten to the university. This scheme was subsequently revised and adopted in 1903. It provides that there be a kindergarten for children below the age of seven, a lower primary school of five years for every village, a higher primary school of four years for every town, and a middle school of five years for every prefect. The higher education consists of the college, the university, and the school of research. For professional training, there are the higher normal schools and the various kinds of higher technical schools. (1) The college is to be established in the capital city of every province. It offers a three-year course as a preparation for the university and corresponds somewhat to the last years of a German gymnasium, or a French lycée and an American junior college. (2) The University is to be established at the National capital and in the provinces. A university is to have the following faculties: 1. Chinese classics; 2. law; 3. literature; 4. medicine; 5. science; 6. agriculture; 7. engineering; and 8. commerce. All courses cover three years, except those in law and medicine, which require four years.

(3) The school of research is for postgraduate studies and covers a period of five years, two of which must be passed in residence. (4) The higher normal school is to train teachers and administrative officers for middle schools and normal schools of secondary grade. There is to be one at least in each province. Its curriculum consists of a general course of one year to be taken by all students and four special courses of three years each. These four groups of studies are as follows: 1. Chinese literature and modern languages; 2. history and geography; 3. mathematics, physics, and chemistry; and 4. biology and physiology. (5) The higher technical schools are of three types, viz., agricultural, industrial, and commercial. They take in middle school graduates and offer a one-year preparatory course and a three-year full course.

The system outlined above in all its crudeness represents a new departure of historic interest. It marked an admirable beginning which testified to the earnestness of the authorities. During the interval between its inception and the Revolution in 1911, every effort was made to carry out the scheme laid down. Thus the last educational statistics published by the government under the imperial régime show that there were in 1909 three universities with a total enrollment of 749 students, twenty-five colleges with a total enrollment of 4,525 students, nine higher normal schools with a total enrollment of 1,580 students, and thirteen higher technical schools with a total enrollment of 1,690 students.

Education received a powerful impulse with the establishment of the Republic, which brought the control of the government into the hands of the Chinese people. To suit the new national aspirations and needs, reorganization of the school system had to be effected and readjustments in aims and methods to be made. In 1912, an Educational

Conference was called in Peking by the Minister of Education. Educators and experts with competent knowledge and experience were invited to the Conference to help the Government to adopt a sound educational policy. As a result, a new school system was introduced. This was in force till 1922; and, as the recently adopted program will take some time to work itself out in practice, this system is, for a large part, still in force to-day.

The 1912 system provides for a four-year lower primary school, a three-year higher primary school, and a four-year middle school. For higher education, there is the university, the professional school, or the higher normal school. (1) The University covers three years for the preparatory department and three years for the university proper. No definite period of time is set for the school of postgraduate studies. The preparatory department offers three groups of studies: the first is for those who wish to enter the faculties of arts, law, and commerce; the second for those who wish to enter the faculties of science, engineering, agriculture, and pharmacy; and the third for those who wish to enter the faculty of medicine. The three alternative courses are as follows:

*Group 1*

- |                      |            |               |
|----------------------|------------|---------------|
| 1. Foreign Languages | 3. History | 5. Psychology |
| 2. Literature        | 4. Logic   | 6. Law        |

*Group 2*

- |                      |              |                          |
|----------------------|--------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Foreign Languages | 4. Physics   | 7. Mineralogy            |
| 2. Literature        | 5. Chemistry | 8. Mechanical<br>Drawing |
| 3. Mathematics       | 6. Geology   |                          |

*Group 3*

- |                      |                |            |
|----------------------|----------------|------------|
| 1. Foreign Languages | 4. Mathematics | 7. Zoölogy |
| 2. Literature        | 5. Physics     | 8. Botany  |
| 3. Latin             | 6. Chemistry   |            |

The courses for the different faculties of the university are as follows :

*1. Arts*

1. Chinese and Western Philosophy
2. Literature
 

<i>a.</i> Chinese	<i>e.</i> German
<i>b.</i> Sanskrit	<i>f.</i> Russian
<i>c.</i> English	<i>g.</i> Italian
<i>d.</i> French	<i>h.</i> Philosophy
3. History
 

<i>a.</i> Chinese and Oriental
<i>b.</i> Western
4. Geography

*2. Science*

- |                         |               |
|-------------------------|---------------|
| 1. Mathematics          | 5. Zoölogy    |
| 2. Astronomy            | 6. Botany     |
| 3. Theoretical Physics  | 7. Geology    |
| 4. Experimental Physics | 8. Mineralogy |

*3. Law*

- |        |               |                      |
|--------|---------------|----------------------|
| 1. Law | 2. Government | 3. Political Economy |
|--------|---------------|----------------------|

*4. Commerce*

- |                     |                      |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Banking          | 4. Consular System   |
| 2. Insurance        | 5. Customs Revenue   |
| 3. Foreign Commerce | 6. International Law |



5. *Medicine*

- |             |                 |
|-------------|-----------------|
| 1. Medicine | 2. Pharmacology |
|-------------|-----------------|

6. *Agriculture*

- |                           |                       |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Agriculture            | 3. Forestry           |
| 2. Agricultural Chemistry | 4. Veterinary Science |

7. *Engineering*

- |                           |                         |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Civil Engineering      | 7. Architecture         |
| 2. Mechanical Engineering | 8. Industrial Chemistry |
| 3. Shipbuilding Mechanics | 9. Explosives           |
| 4. Naval Architecture     | 10. Mining Engineering  |
| 5. Military Mechanics     | 11. Metallurgy          |
| 6. Electrical Engineering |                         |

(2) The professional schools admit middle school graduates for professional training. Their work covers a period of four years, including one year for preparatory work. These schools are classified as follows: 1. Law; 2. Medicine; 3. Pharmacy; 4. Agriculture; 5. Commerce; 6. Mercantile Marine; 7. Art; 8. Music; 9. Engineering; 10. Foreign Languages. (3) The higher normal school offers a four-year course, including one year for preparatory work. They usually have four departments, viz., 1. Chinese literature, history and geography; 2. Mathematics, physics, and chemistry; 3. English; and 4. Zoölogy, botany, and mineralogy.

In practice the system has undergone many modifications in the last ten years. To mention a few: (1) In 1917, the university preparatory course was shortened to two years and later to one year and the university course proper was made to cover four years. (2) It was found that nothing short of superhuman resources could have enabled a university to establish all the seven faculties within a short time. The revised ordinance of 1917, therefore, rendered the name

“university” applicable to an institution of higher learning which had two or more faculties and the term “college” to one having only one faculty. (3) Then, gradually, promotion and graduation by units of credit has taken the place of that by years; and the elective system taken the place of the rigid prescription of courses.

## 2. PRESENT SITUATION

1. *Universities.*—Mention has been made of the Peiyang University and Shansi University. In connection with the 1903 educational system, we have referred to the university to be established in the national capital. The National Peking University, in fact, began to take root in 1898. Since Mr. Tsai Yuan-pei became its Chancellor, it has become one of the most important centers of educational influence. During the first year of the Republic, the Government planned to found three other universities, one in Nanking, one in Wuchang, and one in Canton. But the condition of national and provincial finances did not permit their immediate realization. A Southwestern University to be founded in Canton was proposed in 1919 but was soon dropped on account of political upheavals. In 1920, an ambitious scheme was launched to establish a National Southeastern University upon the old foundation of Nanking Higher Normal School. Thanks to the coöperative effort of such educators as Drs. Y. P. Huang, Monlin Chiang, Tsai Yuan-pei, and others, and the timely support of the Government, the scheme was carried through successfully. The University was formally opened in 1921 with four colleges; viz., arts and science, education, agriculture, and engineering in Nanking, and a college of commerce in Shanghai.

The work done by the privately endowed institutions should not be overlooked. Both the Nankai College, which

is under the capable administration of Dr. Chang Po-ling, and the Amoy University, solely endowed by Mr. Chen Chia-Keng, a public-spirited Chinese merchant in Singapore, have laid very good foundation for future growth. The institutions that have obtained government recognition include the following: Nankai College, Tientsin; Amoy University, Amoy; Fuh-Tan University, Shanghai; Utopia University, Shanghai; Chung Hua University, Wuchang; Chung Kuo University, Peking; Chao Yang University, Peking; and Tung Chi University.

Several new universities are in the process of being organized. The Tung Luh University in Yünnan has already part of its buildings completed and work in its preparatory department begun. The Chekiang province is taking vigorous steps to organize the Hangchow University. Other provinces, such as Kwangtung, Szechwan, Anhwei, Hupeh, Honan, and Manchuria, all have their contemplated schemes for a seat of higher learning in their respective provinces.

2. *Professional Schools.*—There are six professional schools under the control of the Ministry of Education: namely, the Law School, the School of Engineering, the Medical School, the School of Agriculture, the Arts School, all in Peking, and the School of Commerce in Wuchang. Two of the engineering schools, the Nanyang College and Tangshan College, to which we shall have occasion to refer again, are, however, supported by the Ministry of Communications.

3. *Higher Normal Schools.*—Under the 1903 educational system, the higher normal schools were to be established by the provinces. Since 1912 they have been under the direct control of the Ministry of Education and they are six in number; viz., Peking Higher Normal School, Wuchang Higher Normal School, Shenyang Higher Normal School,

Nanking Higher Normal School, Kwangtung Higher Normal School, Chengtu Higher Normal School.

4. *Other Institutions of College Grade.*—(1) The Tsing Hua College in Peking occupies a unique position. Its creation is due to the remission of about one half of the Boxer Indemnity by the United States. On July 11, 1908, Mr. W. W. Rockhill, United States Minister to China, communicated to our Government that a bill had been passed by the Congress of the United States authorizing the President to do with the Indemnity Fund as he deemed most fit. Mr. Roosevelt, then President of the United States, finally decided that the unpaid amount of the Indemnity should be returned to China unconditionally beginning with the first of January, 1909. This act of generosity and good-will was highly appreciated by our Government and people. Availing itself of the auspicious occasion to further cement the friendly relations between the two nations, the Government resolved to employ the returned fund—some eleven million dollars gold—to send students to be educated in America. A special training school was to be established in Peking for the purpose of preparing students for admission into American colleges and universities. Thus it was that Tsing Hua College was formally opened in 1911 with the standard of an American high school. In recent years, for educational as well as economic reasons, a scheme has been afoot to raise the standard of the school to a full college, enabling its graduates to enter American universities for postgraduate work directly. (2) Two other schools merit special mention again. They are the Nanyang College and the Tangshan College, both doing satisfactory work in Engineering and under the Ministry of Communications. The Nanyang College, as we have already noted, is one of the earliest centers of higher learning in the country. An attempt was made by the

Ministry in 1920 to coördinate the work of the two schools and to establish a headquarters in Peking to be known as the Chiao-Tung University. The plan, however, proved impracticable. The so-called Chiao-Tung University now in Peking is a school separate from the other two and giving only courses in railway and telegraph administration.

✓ 5. *Higher Education for Women.*—The higher education for women was sadly neglected in the 1903 school system. The highest grade of schools then provided for girls were the middle and normal schools. In 1920, the Peking Girls' Normal School was raised to a higher standing and became a Peking Girls' Higher Normal School with departments in Chinese language and literature; foreign languages; mathematics, physics, and chemistry; biology; and home economics. At the same time, Teachers Colleges in Peking, Nanking, and Canton began to admit women students. Both National Peking University and National Southeastern University are now coeducational institutions. To the missionary educators is due the credit of having started some pioneering work in girls' higher education. The Peking Union Women's College, now a department of the Yenching University, Ginling College in Nanking and the Women's College of South China in Foochow are notable instances. St. Mary's Hall and the McTyeire High School in Shanghai, have also been doing creditable work.

✓ 6. *Recent Changes in Educational System.*—For some years, the feeling has been prevalent that the school system, as it exists, is in need of reshaping and reorganization in order to answer the demands of a new social order and to keep abreast with the educational tendencies of the world. At the session of the annual conference of the Provincial Education Associations held in Canton in 1921, a tentative new school system was brought up and passed. After

thorough study and examination, the system was finally adopted by the Government in 1922. According to this system, the primary school covers six years, which may be divided into two sections, four years and two years, and schools giving instruction only in the first four years may be established. After the fourth year, special courses for vocational preparation may be added. Compulsory education is fixed at four years for the present, but this period should be prolonged where possible. The middle school course will be six years, instead of four as it used to be. The six-year period is divided between three years of general work and three years for vocational or college preparation to be called the junior and senior middle schools respectively. Thus the whole scheme corresponds somewhat to the American 6-3-3 plan. The senior middle school is to give more specialized training, fitting the students for further work in such subjects as engineering, law, medicine in higher schools, or for taking up some definite line of work outside. This makes it possible for those who plan to go on to a higher education to do so, and, at the same time, gives specific vocational training for those who are to leave school after the middle school period. It is rapidly being adopted in America and the European countries, so, in making this change, China is falling in line with the progressive countries of the West. The elective system is to be introduced in the senior middle school course. Thus the plan will permit flexibility and adaptation to the needs of local conditions.

Now let us turn to higher education under the new school system. We have indicated that since 1917 the university has been giving a two-year or one-year preparatory course and a four-year university course proper. With the coming into existence of the senior middle school in the new system, the preparatory course for the university is

automatically discarded. The university may consist of one or more faculties ; if only one faculty, say the faculty of law, is maintained, it will be called a college — in this instance, a college of law. The university or college covers a period which varies from four to six years ; medical and law colleges require five years and teachers college four. The professional schools and higher normal schools conducted under the old system are to raise their standard to a college so that they may take in senior middle school graduates.

The immediate effect of this change is the raising of several professional schools and higher normal schools to the standard of college. The Peking Higher Normal School has become the Peking Teachers College, while the Nanking Higher Normal School is being merged into the Southeastern University. The Kwangtung Higher Normal School is proposing to amalgamate itself with the School of Agriculture, and the School of Law in Canton to become a Kwangtung University. The Shenyang Higher Normal School has also taken steps to convert itself into the Northeastern University. The Peking School of Agriculture has been reorganized and made the College of Agriculture and both the School of Law and the School of Engineering are planning to become full colleges in the fall of 1923.

7. *Advanced Studies and Research.* — Lest the above-mentioned phenomenal changes should convey an impression of being merely structures on a sandy basis, considering the brief space of time in which modern education has been developed and the limitations in finances and trained men available, let it be emphasized that China has her own wealth of learning and culture and that whatever lack in modern technique and scientific knowledge is being gradually supplied by a steady stream of scholars and specialists trained in Western countries and returning year by year. Beginnings

have been made in original scientific researches, at the Peking National University, the Southeastern University, and other institutions. The Geological Survey, under the direction of such experts as Drs. W. K. Ting and W. H. Weng, and the Biological Institute in Nanking, founded in 1922 by the Science Society of China, are other striking examples. In literature and philosophy there have also been some original productions. This does not mean of course that we are not conscious of the need of inspiration and help of the great teachers of the West. On the contrary, this need has been increasingly felt and effectively met by the coming of Professor John Dewey in 1919-1920, of Mr. Bertrand Russell in 1920-1921, and of Professor Hans Driesch in the present year. They have given public lectures in various parts of China and offered short courses in Southeastern University and Peking University. Their lectures have been eagerly listened to, translated, and published; and will create a permanent and far-reaching influence.

In the recent educational movement, Dr. Paul Monroe's visit in 1921-1922 has been a vital factor. As happy instances of intellectual coöperation we may point to the fact that this year Dr. Wm. A. McCall of Columbia University is working with a group of professors of Peking University, Southeastern University, and Peking Teachers College on Chinese educational tests and measurements.

—8. *College Life and Student Activities.*—With the growth of the spirit of democracy, school discipline has become largely a matter of control through the medium of social environment. It will do the Chinese schools an injustice to think that they still govern their students with set regulations and require of them enforced conformity to rule. Instead, the movement for student self-government has long been widespread. In many of the primary schools, are now found



“school cities,” or “student committees.” In the higher schools and colleges, students usually organize themselves into “Self-Government Associations” with legislative and executive sections. Youth and inexperience are responsible for many blunders but these devices have instilled into the minds of the rising generation proper civic interests and ideals and genuine desire for social service and have developed much initiative, organizing ability, and intelligent leadership and followership. The influence, on the whole, has been very salutary.

In regard to physical education, China has almost achieved the impossible. It is proverbial that physical exercise is abhorrent to the scholar of ancient régime. But to-day athletics are a regular feature in every school in China. Annual meetings and contests are held within each school, within each district, and within each section of the country. Outdoor games have also taken a great hold upon Chinese youths and are even more popular than athletics. Every kind of outdoor game is played and played with a skill comparable to Western standards. A special aptitude for association football and tennis has been shown; and it is but a poor school that cannot produce its teams and glorious trophies. Considering the fact that these games are of foreign origin, absolutely unknown before and only recently introduced, the great amount of progress made justifies the belief that the Chinese are among the most adaptable of races and possess latent qualities which are yet destined to surprise the world.

The so-called Student Movement began in 1919 when the Versailles Conference decided to turn over the right of Kiaochow to Japan. The whole nation was then aroused. Students everywhere made public demonstrations and joined with the chambers of commerce in demanding that the people

cease all social and economic intercourse with the Japanese until the latter change their course. A boycott of Japanese goods was enforced. This outbreak of an inflamed public feeling eventually prevented the government and its diplomatic officials from signing the Peace Treaty.

The movement did not stop with the waning of enthusiasm when the crisis was past. A universal feeling operated that the sanest way to maintain the national existence against external aggression was to build up China from within, by spreading a democratic education, raising the standard of living, improving industries, and relieving poverty. The sequel of the movement cannot be better told than by quoting at some length what Professor Dewey, a keen and sympathetic observer of the scene, wrote in 1920 :

“The external phase of the movement centers in the creation of new schools supported and taught by the students, schools for children and adults: popular lectures and direct ‘Social service’ movements; coöperation with shops to supply technical advice and expert assistance in improving old processes and introducing new arts. . . .

“What is termed the literary revolution was under way before the Student Revolt. It aimed at a reform of the language used in books, magazines, newspapers, and public discussion. The outsider will jump to the conclusion that this means an attempt to encourage a phonetic substitute for ideographic characters. Not at all. There is a movement to supplement ideographs with phonetic signs to show their pronunciation, the aim being quite as much to standardize pronunciation as to make it easier to learn to read. But this movement arouses no such interest and excitement as the literary revolution. The latter is an attempt to make the spoken language the standard language for print. Literary Chinese is as far away from the vernacular as Latin is from

English, perhaps further. It is the speech of two thousand years ago, adorned and frozen. To learn it is to learn another language. The reformers were actuated by the practical impossibility of making education really universal when, in addition to the difficulties of mastering the ideographs children in the elementary schools are compelled to get their education in terms of a foreign language. They are actuated even more by the belief that it was not possible to develop a literature which shall express the life of to-day unless the spoken language, the language of the people, is used. Apart from employing and enriching the vulgar tongue, it is not possible to develop general discussion of the issues of to-day, social, moral, economic.

“ Fortunately the new movement was advertised by its loving enemies. The literary classicists saw in it the death-blow to the old moral classics, upon which China was built. They argued that the history of China is the history of its literary classics. Its unity resides in acceptance of the moral traditions they embody. To neglect them is to destroy China. The fight merged into one between the conservatives and liberals in general, between the representatives of the old traditions and the representatives of Western ideas and democratic institutions. Young China rallied as one man to the support of the literary revolution. It is stated that whereas two years ago there were but one or two tentative journals in the vulgar tongue, to-day there are over three hundred. Since last May the students have started score upon score of journals, all in the spoken tongue and all discussing matters in words that can be understood by the common man. . . .

“ Those who know what the change from a learned language to the vernacular meant for the transition from medieval to modern Europe will not despise this linguistic sign of social change. It is more important by far than the

adoption of a new constitution. Conservatism in China is not native or natural. It is largely the product of an inelastic system of memoriter education. This education has its roots in the use of a dead language as the medium of instruction. A national education conference held in October last passed a resolution in favor of having all textbooks hereafter composed in the colloquial language. After this course has been followed for a generation, the judicious historian may see in it an event of greater importance than the downfall of the Manchu dynasty " \*

It can be clearly seen that the student movement is more than a political movement, although the national crisis gave it immediate impetus. "It was," in the words of Professor Dewey again, "the manifestation of a new consciousness, an intellectual awakening in the young men and young women who through their schooling had been aroused to the necessity of a new order of belief, a new method of thinking."

### 3. STUDENTS IN FOREIGN UNIVERSITIES

A significant movement in Chinese higher education has been the sending of students to foreign countries to drink direct at the fountainheads of Western learning and inspiration. This movement began with Dr. Yung Wing in 1868 when he took over to the United States a band of thirty young boys under the auspices of the Government. Including those sent over later, he had under his charge altogether some one hundred and twenty youths. They were recalled before they finished their college career. In the eighties and nineties, the movement came almost to a standstill. Meanwhile, political events were moving fast in the

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\* John Dewey, *The Sequel of the Student Revolt in the New Republic*, February 25, 1920.

Orient. In 1894, Japan defeated us; in 1900, we were overpowered by the Allied forces; and in 1904, Russia received a crushing blow at the hands of Japan. These telling events, showing beyond a shadow of doubt the larger values of the new learning over the old and the greater efficiency of modern organizations over the effete medieval system, revived the movement of seeking the New Learning abroad. While small numbers of students continued to go to Europe and America, the great majority of them repaired to Japan. In 1908, as has already been mentioned, the United States generously returned the unexpended portion of the Boxer Indemnity to China, and out of appreciation and goodwill, our Government is annually sending out a large number of young men to American universities or technical schools. Along with the Government scholars, a large number of private students are going to America for higher education every year.

Japan used to be the favorite land for Chinese students, both because of the geographical position and the facilities in language. During recent years, national feeling has greatly decreased the number of Chinese students in Japanese universities.

The number of Chinese students in the universities of England, France, Germany, and other European countries is small compared with the number of those in America and Japan. One of the obvious reasons is, of course, that many Chinese students going to America are on the Indemnity scholarship and that studying in Japan is relatively inexpensive, while European countries offer no such advantages. However, due to the influence of a society promoted by Li Shih Tseng and others and because of the report that the cost of going to college in Germany has become very low, a large number of students have gone to France and Germany since the Great War.

The students who return to China upon the completion of their studies abroad usually find a useful and important

career before them. A large number of them are now in the service of their Government and at the head of educational and industrial enterprises. To them as a class must be credited the introduction of Western ideas and methods, the institution of fundamental reforms, and the gradual transformation of the social and economic order of the country along modern lines. Both as students of Western civilization and as interpreters of Chinese learning and culture to the West, they have a large share to contribute toward bringing the nations to a closer friendship based upon intelligent mutual understanding.

#### 4. FOREIGN EDUCATIONAL WORK IN CHINA

Any survey of modern higher education in China must be incomplete without giving a due account of the work done by the foreign missionaries. "Educational work under the auspices of Protestant Christianity dates from the year 1839, when Dr. R. S. Brown opened a school at Macao. Christian schools were at first established not by professional educators and not for the promotion of education for education's sake, but as an adjunct and aid to evangelization. Once established, however, the schools indicated their right to live not only by serving the end for which they were originally founded but by contributing effectively to the other ends which missionary work began to set for itself. As a result, they grew in number, size, and variety of specific character ranging from the kindergarten to the college, and even in a few cases undertaking postgraduate work.\*

In 1919, a conference of the presidents of missionary universities and colleges was held and as a result fourteen institutions, each having a complete college course, were

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\* E. D. Burton and others, *Christian Education in China*, p. 20.

banded together to form the Association of Christian Colleges and Universities in China. The members of this Association are as follows: In addition to the above fourteen institutions, the Huping College, at Yochow, Hunan, and the Women's College of South China, at Foochow, have also been giving college courses and may soon be admitted into the Association. There are several junior colleges; for example, the Manchuria Christian College at Mukden, English Methodist College at Ningpo, the Oberlin Shansi Memorial School in Shansi, and Trinity College at Foochow.

The Roman Catholic Church has done comparatively little in higher education, — a Catholic mission "college" being only equivalent in standard to a middle school, — although one who knows the scholarship of many Catholic missionary educators and the high quality of their literary and scientific productions will at once be ready to admit the high intellectual standards of several of their educational institutions. Such schools as the College de St. Ignace, the College de St. Francis Xavier, and Universite l' Aurore with its special departments in medicine, language and arts, theology, sciences and technical subjects, have been doing splendid work.

While open to adverse criticisms from a national point of view, some of the institutions under mission control are among the finest and most efficient colleges in China to-day. And, because they made an early start, they have had much influence and prestige. With the rapid growth of the National system of education, however, their position is changed. The more farseeing of their educators, in fact, do not hesitate to voice a feeling akin to anxiety. Thus, one writer, after reviewing the recent progresses made in Chinese higher education, raises the questions: "Is there any real future for mission colleges? . . . Are we to be dismayed?

or to be unconcerned?" "First of all," the writer continues, "it is very clear that we must find cause for rejoicing in every forward effort for independent education. . . . If we relatively lose prestige it will be a result toward which we have largely helped and for which all who seek China's good are waiting. Government institutions will have their own difficulties, and at best all combined cannot for a long time ahead begin to meet China's educational necessities. . . . A second conclusion, which we have doubtless all reached, is the advisability of becoming as indigenous as possible, of putting Chinese into executive positions, giving them the fullest share in responsibility and privilege, securing their financial support largely for the moral effect, identifying ourselves in every possible way with their official, educational, and community life, reducing to the utmost the offense of our foreign origin. . . . A third consideration is as to our specific task in the coming order. . . . The signs of the times, if they have any meaning for us at all, surely call for comprehensive planning, wide horizons, a purpose which is more concerned with the impact of our education on the nation's moral and spiritual life than with the interests of any one institution or locality, intensive work in a narrow sphere."\* Such statements may well be taken as the representative opinion of thoughtful missionary educators.

Apart from the mission colleges, two institutions deserve special notice. One is the Peking Union Medical College, under the auspices of the China Medical Board of Rockefeller Foundation. The other is the Hongkong University, a British colonial university, established in 1911 with faculties of Arts, Medicine, and Engineering. In both institutions, foundations have been laid for high-grade training equivalent to that obtainable abroad.

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\* J. L. Stuart, *The Outlook for Missionary Colleges in the Educational Review* for February, 1921, published by the China Christian Educational Association.



## 5. SOME STATISTICS

The following two tables will give some idea as to the present status of higher education in China :

## PROFESSIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGES

<i>Kinds of School</i>	<i>No. of Schools</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>	<i>The Year's Expenditure</i>
University	35	13,098	8,633,704
Teachers College	8	3,093	1,542,511
Agricultural College	7	1,271	336,285
Technical College	13	2,026	802,863
Commercial College	8	1,890	245,499
Medical College	7	832	625,588
Law College	33	10,864	1,008,191
Others	14	1,806	755,783
TOTAL	125	34,880	13,950,424

DISTRIBUTION OF COLLEGES ACCORDING TO  
SOURCES OF SUPPORT

<i>Sources of Support</i>	<i>No. of Schools</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>	<i>The Year's Expenditure</i>
National	30	10,535	6,254,452
Provincial	48	9,801	2,034,590
Private	29	10,524	1,203,699
Mission and Foreign	18	4,020	4,457,683
TOTAL	125	34,880	13,950,424

## 6. PROBLEMS TO BE SOLVED

In an article which aims chiefly to supply information, there is no room for detailed discussion of problems and difficulties. It is sufficient to mention a few outstanding ones and to indicate possible lines of their solution.

One of the first problems which confronts Chinese higher education is that of finance. The eight institutions in Peking under the Ministry of Education need \$220,000 for their monthly expenditure. Moderate as it is, its payment has often been in arrears. These institutions have been attempting to ask the Government for an increase of \$10,000 a month and also for setting aside a portion of the customs revenue for this purpose. Toward the end of last year, the Ministry of Education created an Educational Finance Commission consisting of leading educators and responsible officials of the government to make a study of the problem. It seems certain that, until there is a stable government and reliable revenues are provided for the support of schools, very little improvement of the situation can be hoped for. However, there is no cause for pessimism. Political unrest in China is a necessary consequence of the transition from one form of government to another. For the readjustments to take place, freedom and time have to be allowed.

The difficulty of securing a body of trained specialists for the college teaching staff has also been a serious problem. It is being partially solved as students with competent knowledge and training come back from Europe and America. But how to afford them facilities for continued research and opportunities for possible further studies is still a question which taxes the ingenuity and resources of an educational administrator.

Next in importance to the question of teachers is that of books and media of instruction. In advanced subjects, English and American textbooks and books for reference have been extensively used and this sometimes justifies the adoption of English as a medium of instruction. No system of education, of course, can be called national unless teaching is done through the medium of the native language. But

the Chinese language is as yet inadequate in scientific vocabulary and idiom. Words, terms, and phrases have literally to be invented ; and we have to await the labors of native scholars and men of science before scientific subjects can be taught and learned entirely in the national language. A good beginning in this respect has been made and the progress recently achieved has been quite remarkable.

The elevation of the college standard to include post-graduate work ; the extension of educational services to the community at large ; the coördination between the courses of the college and of the middle school ; these and many other vital problems are pressing the Chinese educators for solution. When they *are* solved, many of our present intellectual and spiritual struggles will be over and a new era of educational achievement will dawn.

# NORMAL SCHOOL EDUCATION IN CHINA

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# NORMAL SCHOOL EDUCATION IN CHINA

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## I. HISTORICAL SURVEY

The beginning of normal schools in China can be traced back to as early as 1897 when, with the establishment of the Nanyang College in Shanghai, a normal department was added to it for the training of its teachers. In 1898, the Peking National University was founded with the establishment of a normal class, the students of which were recruited from those in the third year of the University who were especially talented.

But the actual inauguration of a normal school system in China did not take place until 1903 when a modern school system was introduced. The demand for modern teachers, however, was a big problem. Consequently, the following methods of recruiting teachers were resorted to: (1) to use the graduates of missionary schools in China; (2) to retain the old Chinese literati who had gained some modern knowledge through translated books; (3) to employ foreign teachers; and (4) to engage the so-called returned students from abroad.

A description of the central control of normal schools can be easily made by briefly outlining the general educational administration. This administration is characterized by rigid uniformity and absolute centralization. All sources of authority reside in the Ministry of Education, which is one of the departments of the central government. The work of the Ministry is carried on by one general council and three

divisions: (1) the division of general education; (2) the division of professional or technical education; and (3) the division of social education. The normal schools are under the control of the division of social education.

Every province has a department of education; every county (hsien) has a board of education; every town or rural district has a local officer or gentry upon whose hands the educational affairs are placed. But all carry on the orders of the Ministry of Education.

*Higher Normal Schools.* The aim of the higher normal school is to prepare teachers for the primary normal schools and for the middle schools.

1. *Administration and Organization.* According to the mandate of the Ministry of Education of 1903, there should be a higher normal school in the national capital of China and one in the capital of every province. The mandate of the Ministry of Education of 1912, however, made higher normal schools national institutions. The number and location were to be decided by the Minister. The finance of the higher normal schools thus comes from the national treasury.

Every higher normal school has to establish a practice middle and elementary school. If desirable, there may be opened a half-day elementary school and an elementary continuation school.

It admits graduates from the primary normal school and from the middle school. They are exempt from tuition fees, together with room and board. A certain number of self-supporting students may be also admitted.

Immediately upon matriculation, the student has to sign on for six years' service after graduation. If he fails to serve, he will be under the obligation of paying back all the tuition fees. Not until the required number of years of service is over, can he be admitted to a university for further study. But rigid enforcement has never been carried out. Moreover, permission for studying in a university before the completion of the required number of years can be easily obtained.

2. *Curricula.* Before the establishment of the Republic of China, the curricula of the higher normal schools, according to the regulations of 1903, are divided into three parts: the common course (one year); the specialized course (three years); and the additional course (one year). Alongside with this, there may be a special course and an elective course for training teachers of special subjects in the middle schools.

The Common Course of one year offers the following subjects:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Hours per Week</i>
Ethics	1
Sources of Classics	2
Chinese Literature	3
Japanese Language	6
English	11
Logic	3
Mathematics	6
Physical Exercise	3
Total	36

It is interesting to note here that for the common foundation of the higher normal school work, eleven hours are devoted to the study of English and even six hours to the study of Japanese.

The specialized course (which is indeed the higher normal school proper) has four groups of study. Group A, Chinese Literature and Foreign Languages, has thirteen subjects for three years: ethics, outline of classics, Chinese literature, history, education, psychology, philosophy of Chow and Chin dynasties, English, German or French, logic, biology, physiology and physical exercise. Law and Economics are optional. The number of hours per week for these courses is thirty-six throughout the three years.



Group B, History and Geography, has twelve subjects : ethics, outline of classics, Chinese literature, education, psychology, geography, history, law, economics, English, biology, and physical exercise. German is an optional course. The total number of hours per week is thirty-six throughout the three years.

Group C, Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry, has twelve subjects : ethics, outline of classics, Chinese literature, education, psychology, mathematics, chemistry, English, drawing, manual training, and physical exercise. German and biology are optional. There are thirty-six hours per week for all the courses throughout the three years.

Group D, Botany, Zoölogy, Minerology, and Physiology, has fourteen subjects : ethics, outline of classics, Chinese literature, education, psychology, botany, zoölogy, physiology, minerology, geology, agriculture, English, drawing, and physical exercise. Chemistry and German are optional.

The Additional Course, which is a one-year course, has ten subjects : ethics, introduction to education, educational system, educational administration, æsthetics, laboratory work in psychology, school hygiene, special phase in education, child study and practice teaching. A thesis is required at the completion of the course.

It is evident from the foregoing statements that the Common Course has for its aim the impartation of subject matter to be taught, while the Additional Course has for its aim the acquaintance with educational theories and practices.

The Elective Course has only three years : one year for the preparatory period and two years for the Elective Course Proper. It admits graduates from the Brief Course of the primary normal school and those who have finished the second year of the middle school. The subjects for the preparatory department are as follows : ethics, Chinese, mathematics, geography, history, physics and chemistry, natural science, physical exercise, drawing, and English, making a total of thirty-six hours. The Elective Course Proper of two

years is also divided into four groups, as follows : (1) history and geography ; (2) physics and chemistry ; (3) natural sciences ; and (4) mathematics. The following courses are common to all groups : ethics, education, psychology, logic, English, Japanese, and physical exercise.

The changes that were brought about after the establishment of the Republic of China in 1912 in the school system which eventually affected the normal school curricula are as follows. The former Common Course has been changed to Preparatory Department (one year) ; the Specialized Course has been changed to the Higher Normal Proper (three years) ; the Additional Course has been changed to the Research Department (one or two years). The Special and Elective Courses are not changed and each is for two or three years.

The Preparatory Department has the following courses : ethics, Chinese language, English, mathematics, logic, drawing, music and physical exercise.

The Higher Normal Proper is divided into the following departments : (1) Chinese language ; (2) English language ; (3) history and geography ; (4) mathematics and physics ; (5) physics and chemistry ; (6) natural sciences. The six different curricula may be presented as follows :

#### *Chinese Department*

Ethics	Philosophy
Psychology and Education	Æsthetics
Chinese Literature	Philology
English	Physical Exercise
History	

Chinese literature receives the greatest emphasis, twelve hours being devoted to it in the first two years and ten in the last year. The total number of hours per week is as follows : twenty-seven hours for the first year ; twenty-eight for the second ; and twenty-four for the last year.

*English Department*

Ethics	Philosophy
Psychology and Education	Æsthetics
English Literature	Philology
Chinese Literature	Physical Exercise
History	

English receives the greatest attention, fourteen hours being devoted to it in the first year and thirteen hours for the last year. The total number of hours per week for the first, second, and third year is, throughout, twenty-seven.

*History and Geography Department*

Ethics	Chinese
Psychology and Education	English
History	Paleology and Anthropology
Geography	Physical Exercise
Civics and Economics	

Eight hours a week are devoted to history in the first year and nine hours in the second and third year. Five hours a week are devoted to geography for the first two years and four hours a week for the last year. The total number of hours per week is twenty-nine for the first year ; twenty-eight for the second year ; and twenty-nine for the last year.

*Mathematics and Physics Department*

Ethics	Astronomy
Psychology and Education	English
Mathematics	Drawing and Manual Training
Physics	Physical Exercise
Chemistry	

Six hours per week are devoted to mathematics throughout the course. Twenty-seven hours per week are devoted to all subjects for the first year and twenty-four for the second and last year,

*Physics and Chemistry Department*

Ethics	Astronomy
Psychology and Education	English
Physics	Drawing and Manual Training
Chemistry	Physical Exercise
Mathematics	

Four hours a week are devoted to physics for the first and second year and five hours for the last year. Four hours a week are devoted to chemistry throughout the course. To all subjects, twenty-six hours a week are devoted for the first year, twenty-three for the second and the third year.

*Natural Sciences Department*

Ethics	Agriculture
Psychology and Education	Chemistry
Botany	English
Zoölogy	Drawing
Physiology and Hygiene	Physical Exercise
Minerology and Geology	

Four hours a week are devoted to botany throughout the course and two hours to zoölogy for the first year and four hours for the second and third year. To all subjects, twenty-four hours a week are devoted for the first year, twenty-five for the second, and twenty-three for the last year.

From the foregoing array of programs of study, it will be noticed that ethics, psychology, education, English, and physical exercise are common to all departments.

In actual practice, however, it is not necessary for one higher normal school to have all these departments. For instance, according to the statistical report by the Ministry of Education between 1916-17, we have the following varieties. The Higher Normal School in Peking and in Kwangtung both have the six departments; that in Szechwan

has three departments only: Chinese, English, and Mathematics and Physics; that in Wuchang has four departments: English, History and Geography, Mathematics and Physics, and Natural Sciences; that in Chihli has three departments: Physics and Chemistry, Chinese, and English; that in Nanking has two departments: Chinese and Physics and Chemistry.

The Special Course according to the 1912 regulations also varies with different higher normal schools, both in point of number and kinds. According to the 1916-17 statistical reports by the Ministry of Education, the Higher Normal School in Peking has four departments in the Special Course: Education, Chinese, Manual Training and Drawing, and Physical Training; that in Nanking has three: Chinese, Physical Training and Industrial Arts; that in Szechwan has one, composed of Manual Training, Drawing, Music, and Physical Training; that in Chihli has two: Manual Training, Drawing, and Music and Physical Training.

*Normal Schools.* The name "primary normal school" was used only before 1912. Since that time, "normal school" has been used to designate the school for preparing elementary school teachers.

1. *Administration and Organization.* A normal school can be established by

(1) the province. The highest official of that province has to report to the Ministry of Education for its approval;

(2) a county or a combination of several counties with the approval of the Minister of Education;

(3) any private citizen or citizens under the same conditions as above. In this case, however, the word "private" should be prefixed to the name of the school.

The finance of the normal school comes from the province, the district, or the individual citizen, as the case may be.

The candidate must possess a sound physique and good conduct as a prerequisite. He must be over fourteen years

of age and a graduate of the higher primary school, or must prove equal ability of the graduate of the higher primary school. Then with the recommendation of the highest civil official of his county and with the guarantee of a trustworthy person, he can present himself to the normal for examination. After he has entered the normal preparatory course, he has to spend four probation months. If he is found fit after these four months, he will then be taken in as a regular student. If the student, after a period of five years, can pass the graduation examination successfully, he will then be given a diploma which will entitle him to the teaching profession. The time for the after-graduation service is as follows :

- (1) Entire scholarship student . . . 7 years
- (2) Half-paid student . . . . 5 years
- (3) Private student . . . . . 3 years

He must teach in his own province ; but with the consent of the Commissioner of Education of the province he can serve outside of his own province or in the Chinese colonies overseas.

2. *Curricula*: According to the regulations of 1903, the normal school has the following different varieties:

- (1) Complete normal school course (five years).
- (2) Brief normal school course (one year). This is to be established in the provincial capital only.
- (3) Normal institute (ten months). This is to be established in chows and hsiens. Any old scholar with good Chinese and sound health and between the ages of thirty and fifty can be admitted.
- (4) Preparatory department (one year). This is for those who wish to enter the normal school but whose preparation is not sufficient.
- (5) Institute of elementary school teachers. This is for those who have graduated from the normal institute but who want to enter normal schools later

(6) Auditor class. This is to help all those old scholars who wish to get acquainted with educational theories. They can attend the classes freely, but they receive no rewards or diplomas.

According to the regulation of 1903 the complete normal school course is of five years and has the following program of studies :

TABLE I

<i>Subject</i>	<i>First Year Hours per Week</i>	<i>Second Year Hours per Week</i>	<i>Third Year Hours per Week</i>	<i>Fourth Year Hours per Week</i>	<i>Fifth Year Hours per Week</i>
Ethics . . . . .	1	1	1	1	1
Education . . . . .	4	6	8	14	15
Classics . . . . .	9	9	9	9	9
Chinese Literature . . . . .	3	2	2	1	2
History . . . . .	3	3	3	1	1
Geography . . . . .	2	2	2	2	1
Mathematics . . . . .	3	3	3	3	3
Physics and Chemistry . . . . .	2	2	2	1	
Natural Sciences . . . . .	2	2	2		
Handwriting . . . . .	3	2	1	1	1
Drawing . . . . .	2	2	1	1	1
Physical Exercise . . . . .	2	2	3	2	1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>36</b>

The brief normal course is only one year and has the following subjects : ethics (2 hours per week), education (12), Chinese literature (2), history (3), geography (2), mathematics (6), natural science (3), drawing (2), and physical exercise (4), making a total of thirty-six hours.

The reorganization of the educational system in 1912 changed the five-year course into one year of preparatory department and four years of the normal school proper. These are called Part I. Besides, there is a one-year course, which is called Part II. The courses of study of Part I are shown in Table II.

TABLE II

Subject	Year	Preparatory Department	Normal Proper			
			1st Year	2d Year	3d Year	4th Year
Ethics . . . . .		2	1	1	1	1
Classics . . . . .		2	2	2	2	
Education . . . . .				3	4	12
						(9 Practice Teaching)
Chinese . . . . .		10	5	4	3	3
Handwriting . . . . .		2	2	1		
Foreign Language . . . . .		3	3	3	3	2
History . . . . .			3	2	2	
Geography . . . . .			2	3	2	
Mathematics . . . . .		6	4	3	2	2
Natural Sciences . . . . .			3	2	2	
Physics and Chemistry . . . . .				3	3	2
Political Science and Economics . . . . .						2
Drawing and Manual Training . . . . .		2	3	3	3	3
Agriculture . . . . .					3	3
Music . . . . .		2	2	1	1	1
Physical Exercise . . . . .		4	4	4	4	4
TOTAL . . . . .		33	34	35	35	35



The one-year course of Part II is as follows:

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Hours per Week</i>
Ethics . . . . .	1
Classics . . . . .	2
Education . . . . .	15 (8 hours' practice teaching)
Chinese . . . . .	2
Mathematics . . . . .	2
Natural Sciences, Physics and Chemistry . . . . .	3
Drawing	} . . . 3
Manual Training	
Agriculture . . . . .	3
Music . . . . .	2
Physical Exercise . . . . .	3
<hr/>	
TOTAL . . . . .	36

*Girls' Normal Schools.* The mandate of 1903 of the Ministry of Education did not permit the establishment of girls' normal schools. In 1907, the girls' normal schools were for the first time officially recognized and established. The general features of the girls' normal schools are very much the same as those of the boys' normal schools or normal schools both in point of administration and curricula. Only a few salient points of difference will be indicated. In the matter of organization, the girls' normal school has to open a kindergarten, which the normal school, so-called, does not have. In point of curriculum, the girls' normal school has such courses as cooking, domestic science, sewing, embroidery, etc.

There is only one higher girls' normal school in China, now known as the Peking Teachers College for Women. It has four departments: Chinese, English, mathematics and physics and chemistry, and music. There is one special course for physical training.

With the introduction of the coeducational system in China, girls of advanced standing are admitted to institutes of higher learning. In the College of Education of National Southeastern University and the Peking Teachers College, for instance, girl students are admitted to the department of education.

The ordinary girls' normal school of five years, which is made up of one-year preparatory and four years for the normal proper, is really at present the only school where girls can get any secondary education, since there are so few middle schools for girls. Most of the girls' normal schools have, attached to it, a middle school so that those who cannot be admitted to the normal school proper can enter it or those who have better means may prefer to enter it. But the danger of the present girls' normal school is the fact that so many girls try to get into it, not because they exactly want to become teachers, but because they want to get some education somehow. There ought to be more middle schools opened for girls so that those who do come to the girls' normal school will consider teaching as a profession.

## 2. STATISTICAL STUDY

No study of any school system will be complete without a consideration of its statistical aspect. The educational statistics in China have always suffered a belated appearance due to the unrest and civil disturbance of the country.

The Ministry of Education has not been able to publish a continuous series of statistics, nor has it been able to bring the statistics up to date. The latest report is for the year 1916-17, so Tables III, IV, and V are gotten up from the Statistical Report by the Ministry of Education in that year.

Recently, the National Association for the Advancement of Education has done a great deal toward the collection of statistics. The writer of this article is fortunate enough to obtain the most up-to-date statistics gathered by this Association with regard to the normal school conditions in China between 1922-23. All this information is given in Tables VI and VII.

A word of explanation should be made of Tables VI and VII, namely, the totals are made of the statistics of two periods: one in 1919, and the other in 1922-23.

TABLE III. COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF  
NORMAL SCHOOLS BETWEEN 1912-17

	1912-13	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17
No. of Schools	253	314	231	211	195
No. of Students	28,605	34,825	26,679	69,770	24,959
No. of Graduates	5,350	10,527	4,638	4,446	3,954
No. of Teachers	1,954	2,691	2,349	2,399	2,272
No. of Administrative Officers	940	1,280	1,052	1,007	984
Income . .	\$2,077,846	\$2,572,354	\$2,682,111	\$2,711,193	\$3,516,715
Expense . .	\$2,040,387	\$2,833,110	\$2,673,632	\$2,730,209	\$3,037,746
Cost of Student (per capita)	\$71.33	\$72.7	\$100.2	\$156.4	\$129.7

From this table, one can easily see that since 1913 the number of schools began to decrease. While there were 314 schools in 1913, there were only 211 in 1915, the number falling to one third less. Yet at the same time the income and expense increased. The decrease of the number of the normal schools, so far as the writer can see, is due to the unsettled conditions in China. The outbreak of the third revolution in China, which overthrew the monarchical attempt of the first President, naturally accounted for the close of schools and the deduction of students. The cost of the student per capita in 1912 was \$71.33; in 1915 it was raised to \$156.4.

TABLE IV. DISTRIBUTION OF NORMAL SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO PROVINCES

(1916-1917)

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>Boys'</i>	<i>Girls'</i>	<i>Total No.</i>
	<i>Normal Schools</i>	<i>Normal Schools</i>	
Kweichow .....	1	0	1
Sinkiang .....	1	0	1
Jehol .....	1	0	1
Kansu .....	1	1	2
Kwangsi .....	3	0	3
Shensi .....	2	1	3
Fukien .....	2	2	4
Heilungkiang .....	3	1	4
Hupei .....	3	1	4
Kirin .....	3	1	4
Peking .....	2	2	4
Honan .....	4	1	5
Chihli .....	4	2	6
Kiangsi .....	5	1	6
Shansi .....	4	2	6
Anhwei .....	5	2	7
Shantung .....	4	3	7
Szechwan .....	8	0	8
Yunnan .....	7	1	8
Kwangtung .....	6	3	9
Kiangsu .....	9	2	11
Chekiang .....	6	6	12
Hunan .....	5	8	13
Fengtien .....	14	5	19
<b>TOTAL</b> .....	<b>103</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>148</b>
	<b>70%</b>	<b>30%</b>	

This table shows that, of all the normal schools in China, 70% are boys' and 30% are girls'. Those provinces which

have few normal schools are generally situated either in the interior or near the territory. Five have no girls' normal schools at all; they are all very backward in education.

TABLE V. DISTRIBUTION OF NORMAL SCHOOL STUDENTS  
ACCORDING TO PROVINCES

(1916-1917)

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>No. of Boy Students</i>	<i>No. of Girl Students</i>	<i>Total</i>
Sinkiang	57	0	57
Jehol	98	0	98
Kweichow	232	0	232
Kansu	296	20	316
Kwangsi	425	0	425
Shansi	430	52	486
Heilungkiang	390	100	490
Fukien	430	144	580
Honan	538	66	604
Peking	478	43	611
Kwangtung	518	99	619
Kirin	499	251	750
Hupei	693	131	824
Shansi	777	182	959
Szechwan	984	0	984
Anhwei	836	128	1,063
Kiangsi	1,020	90	1,064
Chihli	918	196	1,114
Shantung	1,048	436	1,514
Chekiang	1,089	391	1,530
Yunnan	1,422	137	1,559
Fengtien	1,692	339	2,238
Kiangsu	2,097	560	2,557
Hunan	1,561	1,003	2,564
TOTAL	18,771	4,365	23,136
	81.2%	18.8%	

This table shows that while the normal schools of girls occupy 30% of all the normal schools, they have only 18.8% of the students instead of 30%. It means that the other 11.2% of the students are taken care of by the boys' normal schools. This table also shows, of course, that of all the primary teachers, 81.2% are men; while 18.8% are women. The fact that some provinces do not have a single girl normal student does not mean that women do not enter into the teaching profession; many may go to the private schools or girls' middle schools, and will be teachers just as well.

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## DISTRIBUTION OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN CHINA

TABLE VII 1922-1923 DATA

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>			<i>Number of Students</i>		
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>
Peking District	4	2	6	541	271	812
Chihli. . . .	23	5	28	2,212	635	2,847
Fengtien. . .	22	5	27	2,051	413	2,464
Kirin. . . .	5	1	6	1,006	151	1,157
Heilungkiang .	1	1	2	200	116	316
Shantung . .	10	2	12	1,921	365	2,286
Honan . . . .	12	1	13	1,420	187	1,607
Shansi . . . .	9	5	14	2,629	813	3,442
Kiangsu . . .	15	9	24	3,751	770	4,521
Anhwei . . . .	7	2	9	1,335	402	1,737
Kiangsi . . . .	9	1	10	1,696	108	1,804
Fukien . . . .	8	1	9	1,003	177	1,180
Chekiang . . .	11	8	19	2,498	541	3,039
Hupch . . . .	3	1	4	807	136	943
Hunan . . . .	10	9	19	1,856	771	2,627
Shensi . . . .	2	1	3	656	50	706
Kansu . . . .	10	2	12	664	49	713
Sinkiang . . .	1	—	1	85	—	85
Szechwan . . .	14	6	20	1,517	498	2,015
Kwangtung . .	14	2	16	1,208	193	1,401
Kwangsi . . . .	4	—	4	641	—	641
Yunnan . . . .	10	2	12	1,345	40	1,385
Kweichow . . .	1	1	2	227	38	265
Jehol . . . .	1	—	1	121	—	121
Suiyuan . . . .	1	—	1	87	—	87
Chabar . . . .	1	—	1	76	—	76
TOTAL . . . .	208	67	275	31,553	6,724	38,277

## DISTRIBUTION OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN CHINA

TABLE VII 1922-1923

Province	Number of Faculty			Yearly Expenditure		
	Male	Female	Total	Current	Perma- nent	Total
Peking District	79	6	117	85,700	2,207	139,778
Chihli . . .	238	15	235	240,513	1,833	309,024
Fengtien . . .	157	9	204	189,892	5,763	228,702
Kirin . . .	78	7	85	159,266	1,131	168,029
Heilungkiang	32	4	36	74,149	2,310	76,459
Shantung . .	162	12	174	201,299	165	204,144
Honan . . .	154	6	160	101,592	—	196,924
Shansi . . .	305	11	337	360,864	30,344	406,443
Kiangsu . . .	469	58	607	594,259	115,836	762,297
Anhui . . .	184	18	202	180,466	53,080	279,408
Kiangsi . . .	122	—	205	157,982	1,951	205,872
Fukien . . .	53	—	180	50,679	—	104,769
Chekiang . .	230	5	429	167,242	940	272,159
Hupei . . .	76	—	105	82,011	310	105,234
Hunan . . .	153	—	328	128,708	10,091	219,821
Shensi . . .	55	—	70	64,188	4,200	71,388
Kansu . . .	28	—	118	10,200	1,700	63,379
Sinkiang . .	11	—	11	—	—	19,703
Szechwan . .	—	—	325	—	—	235,560
Kwangtung .	99	1	228	59,158	5,490	111,199
Kwangsi . .	21	—	60	30,488	2,000	96,602
Yunnan . .	35	2	193	29,582	68	144,960
Kweichow . .	—	—	42	—	—	—
Jehol . . .	17	—	17	12,806	—	12,806
Suiyuan . .	13	—	13	7,800	—	7,800
Chahar . . .	6	—	6	11,805	—	11,805
TOTAL . .	2,777	154	4,487	3,005,649	239,419	4,454,265



### 3. THE RECENT EDUCATIONAL REORGANIZATION AND THE NORMAL SCHOOLS

The introduction of the so-called 6-3-3 plan in our educational reorganization, as a result of the Eighth National Educational Conference, October, 1922, has given normal schools significant changes. These changes are: (1) the number of years; (2) the richness of educational courses; and (3) the elasticity of the curricula.

Instead of one year for the normal preparatory and four years in the normal proper, the new system has six years for the normal school. The first three years are in fact the same as the first three years in the middle school, called junior high school; the last three years, however, are the normal school proper and give professional courses. It must be noted that in the third year of the first years of the normal school, a course in "Introduction to Education" must be offered, giving the graduates of the first three years a general idea of what the nature of the normal school will be in the next or last three years. If, in the third year of the junior high school, a similar course is given to students, then those who take and pass it can be admitted to the last three years of the normal school.

A normal school can be of six years or of three years only. In the latter case it takes in the graduates from the junior high schools.

In order to train the teachers for the junior middle school, the teachers' college can have a Special Course of two years in education, especially devoted to this kind of work. This special course can also be added to the ordinary normal school. Some normal schools are already trying to do it, the

difficulty, however, being that it is not easy to get adequate teachers for these normal schools.

The higher normal school of the old system is changed to the teachers' college of four years, taking in the graduates of the senior middle schools. If part of a university, this college can be called College of Education.

In the preparation of this paper there is not as yet a national standard for the program of studies of the normal school. However, two provinces have definitely formulated the courses of study for the normal schools: one is the province of Kiangsu and another is the province of Anhwei. The following table gives the required courses of the normal school without including the elective courses, as adopted by the normal schools in Kiangsu.

TABLE VIII SHOWING THE REQUIRED COURSES OF STUDY FOR THE LAST THREE YEARS OF A NORMAL SCHOOL, AS FORMULATED BY THE NORMAL SCHOOL PRESIDENTS AND DEANS OF KIANGSU PROVINCE IN THEIR MEETINGS IN NOVEMBER, 1922, IN NANKING, KIANGSU

<i>Required</i>	<i>First Year</i>		<i>Second Year</i>		<i>Third Year</i>	
	<i>First Term</i>	<i>Second Term</i>	<i>First Term</i>	<i>Second Term</i>	<i>First Term</i>	<i>Second Term</i>
<i>Course</i>	<i>Credit (or point)</i>	<i>Credit</i>	<i>Credit</i>	<i>Credit</i>	<i>Credit</i>	<i>Credit</i>
Civics . . . .	2	2	2	2	—	—
Education . .	6	6	6	6	8	8
Chinese . . .	3	3	3	3	3	3
Foreign Language . . .	3	3	3	3	2	2
Mathematics .	3	3	3	3	—	—
Physics and Chemistry. .	8	8	5	5	—	—
<b>Total . .</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>13</b>

But by far the most ambitious and carefully worked-out program of studies for the normal school is that promulgated by the Department of Education of the province of Anhwei, 1923. The richness of courses, the opportunity for electives, and the logical introduction of professional courses, fit in most admirably with our educational and psychological principles and therefore speak well for the future of the normal schools in that province. It is a model curriculum worthy of adoption by other provinces. This curriculum is shown in Table IX.

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TABLE IX. CURRICULUM FOR THE NORMAL SCHOOLS IN ANHWEI. (PROMULGATED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION OF THAT PROVINCE, APRIL, 1923)

Courses  (which need preparation)	First Year		Second Year		Third Year	
	1st Term	2d Term	1st Term	2d Term	1st Term	2d Term
	Hours per Week	Hours per Week	Hours per Week	Hours per Week	Hours per Week	Hours per Week
	19	20	20	15	25	20
Civics . . . . .	1	1	1	1	1	1
Chinese . . . . .	5	6				
English . . . . .	5	5	3	3	3	3
Biology . . . . .	5					
Personal and School Hygiene .	2					
Library Management . . . .	1					
Child Psychology . . . . .		3				
Physics and Chemistry . . .		5				
Practice Teaching . . . . .					15	
Kindergarten . . . . .					2	
Educational Principles and History of Education . . .						3
School Administration and System . . . . .						3
Educational Psychology . . .						3
Vocational Problems for Ele- mentary Children . . . . .						3
General Training . . . . .						2
Teaching of Chinese . . . .				3		
Method of Teaching . . . .				3		
Classroom Management . . .				2		
Educational Measurement . .				3		
General Mathematics and Its Method of Teaching . . . .			3			
Normal School Geography and History . . . . .			6			
Normal Physics and Chemistry			5			
Elementary School Curriculum			2			
Electives . . . . .				3	4	2

<i>Courses</i>  (which need no preparation)	<i>First Year</i>		<i>Second Year</i>		<i>Third Year</i>	
	<i>1st</i>	<i>2d</i>	<i>1st</i>	<i>2d</i>	<i>1st</i>	<i>2d</i>
	<i>Term</i>	<i>Term</i>	<i>Term</i>	<i>Term</i>	<i>Term</i>	<i>Term</i>
	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Hours</i>
	<i>per</i>	<i>per</i>	<i>per</i>	<i>per</i>	<i>per</i>	<i>per</i>
	<i>Week</i>	<i>Week</i>	<i>Week</i>	<i>Week</i>	<i>Week</i>	<i>Week</i>
	7	10	10	12	6	7
Handwriting . . . . .	2					
Music . . . . .	2	2	2	1	1	1
Physical Exercises and Games	3	3	3	3	3	3
Manual Training . . . . .		5				
Arts . . . . .				3	2	3
Observation Practice Trading				5		
Domestic Science or Manual Training . . . . .			5			
TOTAL	26	30	30	30	30	37

# MIDDLE SCHOOL EDUCATION IN CHINA

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## MIDDLE SCHOOL EDUCATION IN CHINA

The history of middle school education in China is commonly and conveniently considered according to the two principal phases of its development: (1) The middle school in the Manchu dynasty and (2) the middle school in the Republic.

### I. THE MIDDLE SCHOOL IN THE MANCHU DYNASTY

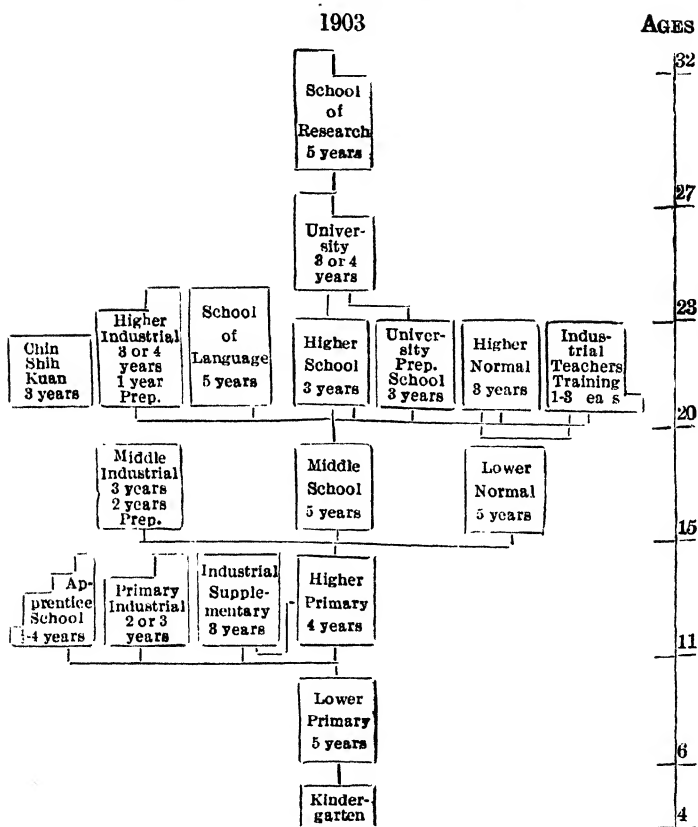
The term "middle school" did not exist until 1898, the year which marks the founding of the Nanyang College at Shanghai with two preparatory divisions, the middle school and the primary school. This is said to be the first middle school in the Chinese history of education.

After the Boxer uprising the Empress Dowager, having learned a dearly bought lesson, started anew the school reforms. An edict was issued commanding that all provincial colleges (Shu Yüan, 書院) in the capital cities of the provinces be turned into modern universities or colleges; that middle schools be established in every prefecture and department; that higher primary schools be established in every district, and lower primary schools in the country at large. In 1903 a special commission, consisting of Sun Chia Nan, Chang Pai Hsi, and Chang Chi Tung, was appointed to draw up a detailed plan for a national public school system, which was soon put into practice. The chart on the next page embodies the system of education proposed by the Commission.

While modern education had been encouraged for some time, the old examination system was still in force, and people hesitated to enter modern schools. Thus the leaders of reform became convinced that in order to see the spread of modern knowledge, China must first do away with the old



## FIRST MODERN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM



way of studying for the examinations. Accordingly, in 1905 an edict was issued abolishing at once the system of examinations, which had its origin more than two thousand years ago. In the same year, the throne issued another edict creating a Ministry of Education to take charge of the new educational system and to develop its work throughout the empire.

With this and other reforms the transition from the traditional education to modern education was practically complete.

(a) *The Aim of the Middle School.* Its aim was "to provide higher general education for children between the ages of fifteen and nineteen, so as to prepare them to enter political and industrial life or the various higher institutions of learning." Graduates of the higher primary school were to be admitted, but in case the number of graduates from the primary school exceeded the number of vacancies in the middle school, an examination was to be given to select the more desirable ones.

In 1906 a decree was issued in which the aim of the modern educational system was set forth "to develop in the minds of the young generation the following virtues: Loyalty to the Emperor, reverence for Confucius, devotion to public welfare, admiration for the martial spirit, and respect for industrial pursuits."

(b) *Control and Support.* The middle school was established in the Fu, or county, at county expense. Provision was also made for the organization of such schools by the smaller units, if prescribed standards could be met. A tuition fee was charged according to local conditions. The examination of the graduate of the middle school, for promotion to higher institutions of learning, was conducted by the governor of the province and the president of the Board of Education. In a sense, the middle school was under the direct control of the Ministry of Education, the system being centralized.

(c) *Curriculum.* The middle school course extended over a period of five years, including the following twelve subjects: Morals, Chinese classics, Chinese literature, foreign languages, history, geography, mathematics, biology, physics and chemistry, civics and economics, drawing, and physical culture. The number of recitations per week was thirty-six throughout the course. Special emphasis was placed on Chinese classics and literature, occupying thirteen hours per

week for the first two years, fourteen for the third, and twelve for the fourth and fifth.

In 1909 a change was made in the school organization. The course in the middle school was divided into two parallel courses—one, industrial, the other, literary, after the plan of the German schools. The industrial division emphasized science; while the literary, classics. In the beginning of 1911, the two courses of study were made more general in character, on account of the criticism directed at the practice of early differentiation in the middle school.

(d) *Teaching Force.* The teachers in the middle school were required to be graduates of the Chinese higher normal schools or of foreign normal schools of equivalent rank. During the first few years of educational reform, it was exceedingly difficult to supply all the newly established schools with a sufficient number of properly trained teachers. The government and authorities could not but resort to various means to secure proper teachers to meet the urgent demand.

*Secondary Education for Girls.* Prior to 1907 secondary education for girls had been neglected. During that year imperial sanction was given to a set of regulations drawn up by the Ministry of Education which provided for the creation not only of primary schools for girls but also of normal schools. The year 1907 will ever be remembered as the date when the Chinese girls for the first time occupied a place in their national public school system. The aim of these girls' normal schools was to train teachers for girls' primary schools. Like the normal school for men, no tuition was charged. Graduates of girls' higher primary schools were admitted.

*Growth of Middle Schools.* In 1904 there were only 1,276 middle school pupils, excluding the pupils of private and missionary schools. Four years later, the number was increased to 31,289, with a teaching force numbering 2,888.

The following figures are taken from the third annual report of the Ministry of Education, published in 1911.

From these figures we can compare the number of middle schools and their students with the number of all types of schools and pupils.

Middle Schools . . . . .	438
All Types of Schools . . . . .	52,348
Middle School Pupils . . . . .	38,881
Total Number of Pupils . . . . .	1,625,534

*Summary.* From the time of the adoption of the modern educational system (1903) to the close of the Manchu dynasty (1911), several important changes in the middle school were made: (1) more diversified courses were provided to meet the varying needs of pupils and communities; (2) the enormously overcharged program was relieved to a certain extent; and (3) the system of granting official degrees by the government to graduates of various schools was abolished. These tendencies were quite in keeping with the democratic movement of the time.

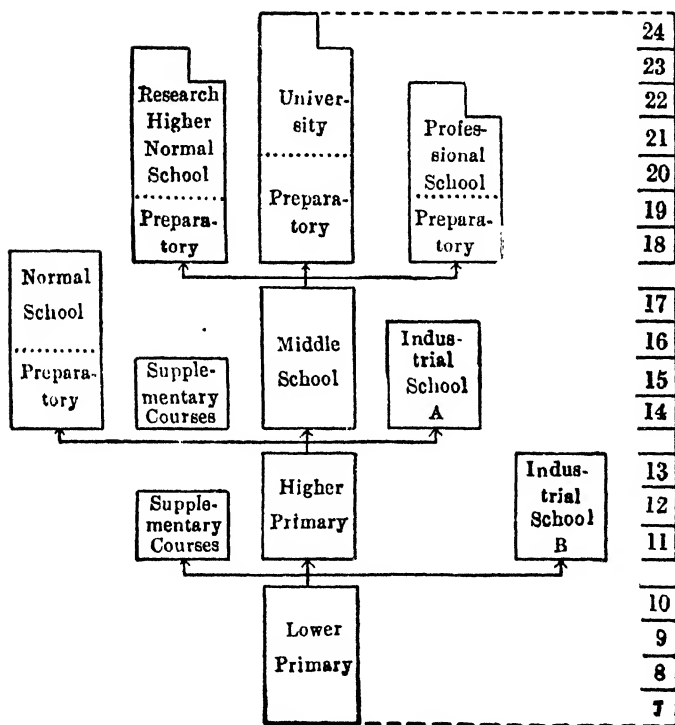
## II. THE MIDDLE SCHOOL IN THE REPUBLIC

*Reorganization of the School System.* The first modern educational system had been in existence only nine years, when the revolution brought forth the Republic of China, in January, 1912. Since then a number of school systems were proposed, but the one finally adopted by the government, which is still in vogue to-day, is given in the chart on the next page.

(a) *Aim.* Since the revolution the aim of education has been modified. The new aim makes education a means of cultivating virtuous or moral character (*tao teh*, 道德), which is defined by Tsai Yuan Pei, the first Minister of Education, to be that which instills into the minds of the people the right knowledge of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. "This moral training is to be supplemented by an industrial and military education and rounded out by an æsthetic education."

## REORGANIZED SCHOOL SYSTEM

1912



While the general aim of education is greatly different from that in the Manchu dynasty, the aim of the middle school shows but a slight change. As promulgated by the

Ministry of Education, the object of the middle school is to complete the general education of the child and to produce efficient and all-round citizens.

(b) *Control and Support.* After the establishment of the Republic the policy of control has also been changed. Higher education is under the control of the central government; secondary education, including the middle schools, the provincial government; and primary education, the local government. This is one of the excellent features of the reorganized system, for it places a definite responsibility upon a definite authority and provides opportunity for local initiative.

Thus the establishment of middle schools is left to the provincial authorities. But the Minister of Education has the right to order the various provinces to increase the number of middle schools whenever necessity demands. Such schools may be opened and maintained by districts, if they can do so, after they have established the number of primary schools required by law. Private individuals or corporations are also allowed to establish middle schools. In any case, "the establishment, reorganization, or abolition of any middle school must first receive the sanction of the Minister of Education."

The tuition is fixed by the school concerned, under a scale prepared by the Minister of Education. According to the scale, the fee charged by the middle school ranges from one to two dollars a month and is to be paid once in each school term. School authorities have the right to remit either wholly or in part the tuition fees of poor students and of those who make the best record in school work.

(c) *Curriculum.* The middle school course has been changed from five to four years. The system of parallel courses introduced in 1909 has been abolished, and only one course is now offered. This does not seem to be in keeping with the modern tendency in secondary education, as it fails to meet the varying needs of pupils.

In the new curriculum the following subjects are prescribed: Morals, Chinese language, foreign language, history, geography, mathematics, nature study, physics, chemistry, government, economics, drawing, handwork, music, and physical culture. The essential change of the new curriculum from the one existing before the Revolution lies in the fact that the classics have dropped out and handwork has been added. The number of recitations has also been reduced, being in no case less than thirty-two, and in none more than thirty-six. The following table shows the full program of the boys' middle school:

TABLE I  
CURRICULUM OF THE BOYS' MIDDLE SCHOOL

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>1st year</i>	<i>2d year</i>	<i>3d year</i>	<i>4th year</i>
Ethics . . . . .	1	1	1	1
Chinese Language . . . .	7	7	5	5
Foreign Language . . . .	7	8	8	8
History . . . . .	2	2	2	2
Geography . . . . .	2	2	2	2
Mathematics . . . . .	5	5	5	4
Nature Study . . . . .	3	3	2	—
Physics and Chemistry . .	—	—	4	4
Civics and Economics . .	—	—	—	2
Drawing . . . . .	1	1	1	2
Handwork . . . . .	1	1	1	1
Music . . . . .	1	1	1	1
Physical Culture . . . .	3	3	3	3
TOTAL HOURS PER WEEK	33	34	35	35

*Middle Schools for Girls.* In the earlier part of this discussion we have mentioned the fact that at the beginning of the establishment of the modern school system, little or no provision was made for the intellectual education of

women. It was not until 1907, that girls' normal schools were established. With the reorganization of the school system, middle schools for girls, for the first time in Chinese history, have been provided for, on the same basis as those for boys. In the curriculum for these schools, household arts, gardening, and sewing are required, though gardening may be left out. The number of recitations per week is one hour less in each year than in the case of the boys' middle school. Table II shows the full program of the girls' middle school.

CURRICULUM OF THE GIRLS' MIDDLE SCHOOL

TABLE II

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>1st year</i>	<i>2d year</i>	<i>3d year</i>	<i>4th year</i>
Ethics . . . . .	1	1	1	1
Chinese Language . . . .	7	6	5	5
Foreign Language . . . .	6	6	6	6
History . . . . .	2	2	2	2
Geography . . . . .	2	2	2	2
Mathematics . . . . .	4	4	3	3
Nature Study . . . . .	3	3	2	—
Physics and Chemistry . .	—	—	4	4
Civics and Economics . .	—	—	—	2
Drawing . . . . .	1	1	1	1
Manual Work . . . . .	1	1	1	1
Household Arts and Gardening . . . . .	—	2	2	2
Sewing . . . . .	2	2	2	2
Music . . . . .	1	1	1	1
Physical Culture . . . .	2	2	2	2
<b>TOTAL HOURS PER WEEK</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>34</b>



STATUS OF MIDDLE SCHOOL EDUCATION SINCE THE REVOLUTION. . The increase in the number of schools and students from 1912 to 1916 is shown in the following table :

### STATISTICS OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE MIDDLE SCHOOLS

1912-1923

TABLE III

	<i>1912</i>	<i>1916</i>	<i>1922-1923</i>
Number of Schools . .	373	350	547
Number of Students .	52,100	60,924	103,385
Number of Teachers .	3,639	4,418	9,349
PER CAPITA COST .	58.2	59.9	63.8

The above figures exclude the missionary and those private schools which are not recognized by the government. During 1915, there were altogether nine girls' middle schools, three public and six private, with a student body numbering 948. At present, the number of girls' middle schools have increased to 25, with a student body numbering 3,249.

The distribution of public, private, and missionary middle school students in China reported in 1923 is shown in Table IV :

## DISTRIBUTION OF MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS IN CHINA

TABLE IV

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>Public and Private</i>	<i>Missionary</i>	<i>Total</i>
	<i>1922-1923</i>	<i>1920</i>	
Peking District . . . . .	5,469		5,469
Chihli . . . . .	7,480	1,953	9,433
Fengtien . . . . .	3,712	521	5,822
Kirin . . . . .	960		
Heilungkiang . . . . .	629		
Shantung . . . . .	6,261	1,489	7,750
Honan . . . . .	3,036	275	3,311
Shansi . . . . .	6,910	267	7,177
Kiangsu . . . . .	9,216	3,323	12,539
Anhwei . . . . .	1,938	270	2,208
Kiangsi . . . . .	4,165	266	4,431
Fukien . . . . .	3,773	1,510	5,283
Chekiang . . . . .	5,131	974	6,105
Hupei . . . . .	5,524	852	6,376
Hunan . . . . .	8,953	659	9,612
Shensi . . . . .	1,829	23	1,852
Kansu . . . . .	777		777
Sinkiang . . . . .			
Szechwan . . . . .	9,581	875	10,456
Kwangtung . . . . .	9,107	1,929	11,036
Kwangsi . . . . .	3,921	17	3,938
Yunnan . . . . .	2,940	10	2,950
Kweichow . . . . .	1,664		1,664
Jehol . . . . .	178		178
Suiyuan . . . . .	102		102
Chahar . . . . .	99		99
TOTAL . . . . .	103,385	15,213	118,598

## SHOWING PER CAPITA COST IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES

1922-1923

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>Per Capita Cost</i>
Peking District . . . . .	\$186.22
Heilungkiang . . . . .	122.74
Kirin . . . . .	109.29
Chahar . . . . .	108.46
Suiyuan . . . . .	103.92
Anhwei . . . . .	98.83
Jehol . . . . .	98.73
Kiangsu . . . . .	79.83
Chihli . . . . .	76.15
Honan . . . . .	73.90
Kansu . . . . .	66.94
Hupei . . . . .	64.61
Fukien . . . . .	63.80
Chekiang . . . . .	61.17
Fengtien . . . . .	59.59
Kwangsi . . . . .	56.54
Shensi . . . . .	54.79
Yunnan . . . . .	52.77
Kwangtung . . . . .	42.93
Kiangsi . . . . .	46.57
Szechwan . . . . .	43.43
Hunan . . . . .	41.85
Shansi . . . . .	40.14
Shantung . . . . .	36.11
Kweichow . . . . .	24.17

SUMMARY. The changes that have been made in the middle school system under the new Republic are along five important lines: (1) Control over the middle school has been shifted from the central government to the provincial government; (2) the Chinese classics have been almost entirely eliminated from the course of study, and greater emphasis is placed on subjects of practical value; (3) the course of study has been reduced from five to four years, and the period required to pass through the whole system has also been shortened from twenty-one to eighteen years; (4) middle schools for girls have been established; and (5) the aim of education has been modified.

#### THE NEW SCHOOL SYSTEM MOVEMENT

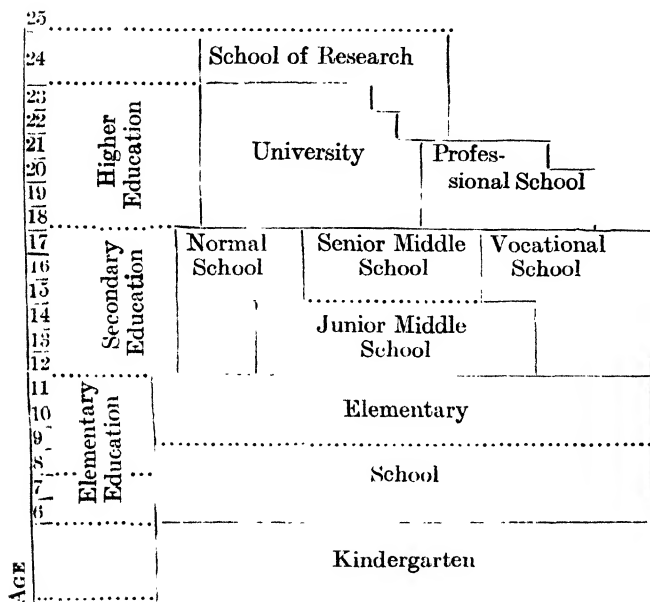
For some years, the feeling has been prevalent that the present school system is not adequate to answer the demands of a new social order. At the session of the annual conference of the Provincial Educational Associations held in Canton in October, 1921, a tentative new school system was brought up and passed. It was revised in certain points at the following session held in Shantung in October, 1922, after it had been submitted to the different provinces for thorough study and examination. In September of the same year, the Ministry of Education called a conference to discuss the proposed school system. With a few modifications, it was finally adopted by the government and promulgated by President Li Yuan Hung in a mandate in November, 1922. It is expected to be put in force in the next school year.

In the new school system the middle school occupies a very important place, the course of study being changed from four to six years, three for the junior middle school and three for the senior. Together with a six-year primary school, the system corresponds fairly well with the American 6-3-3 plan.

*The following chart embodies the new school system :*

### ORGANIZATION OF THE NEW SYSTEM

1922



Numbers on the left of the diagram indicate the approximate school age. In actual practice, however, entrance and promotion are to be based on students' intelligence, their school record, and other conditions.

### EXPLANATIONS FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

- (1) The middle school course extends over a period of six years, of which three will be for the junior course

and three for the senior. Where there are special courses better suited to a 4-2 or a 2-4 system, a variation may be allowed.

- (2) The junior and senior courses may be offered in separate schools.
- (3) The junior middle school offers a general course, but it may offer some vocational courses according to the special needs of the locality.
- (4) Differentiated courses are provided for in the senior middle school. In case one school is not in a position to offer all the courses, it may offer a few of them according to the economical condition and the special needs of the locality.
- (5) The elective system is adopted for secondary schools.

Since the proposal of the new system, steps have been taken by some progressive schools to affect reorganization.

Of the reorganized schools we may mention the Nankai Middle School, the Middle School of Peking Teachers College, and the Middle School of National Southeastern University where differentiated courses have been provided in both the junior middle school and promotion by subject has been put into practice.

At the second session of the Provincial Educational Association held in Shantung, eleven provinces claimed reorganization, but no detailed data were reported. One thing is sure that the most remarkable change in the history of our secondary education is now well under way.

## PRESENT-DAY MIDDLE SCHOOL PROBLEMS

When Dr. Monroe visited China, he pointed out the fact that the chief defect of our educational system lies in the middle school. The reasons for this are manifold. Here we shall briefly mention a few of them.

(1) The aim of the middle school is not clearly defined. Pupils enter the school with no definite ideas; they do not know what they are prepared for. Consequently they do not take much interest in their school work, and are not profited by it. When they go out to work, they find it difficult to enter any walk of life.

(2) Courses are not differentiated to meet the varying needs of pupils due to individual differences of ability and aptitude. Recent studies in secondary education have all emphasized the fact that there are in pupils significant differences in the various respects, and that these differences demand for the pupils' best development differentiated educational programs. In China the introduction of the elective system is only a recent development, and very rarely promotion by subject is also used.

(3) The method of teaching lays too great a stress upon "book learning" and too little upon active use of materials by the student. In some schools the dominant method is lecturing by the teacher, and memorizing by the student. The teacher often fails to make constantly the connection between what is taught in school and the actual facts of the students' experience. "History gets to be a world shut in between the covers of a book. Physiology and hygiene are something to recite about and not to apply to the ventilation of one's bedroom. Mathematics becomes an abstract juggling

with figures." All this explains why people are eager to reform their schools and introduce new methods.

(4) School discipline is at a low ebb in the middle school. For years, the middle school students have been noted for their spirit of independence and unruliess. School riots and school strikes of one kind or another have been of frequent occurrence. This is sometimes attributed to the introduction of the student self-government, which leads some of the students to think that they are masters of the school and to resent everything which they regard as either encroaching upon their liberty or lowering their dignity.

In many cases the cause of the trouble lies not so much in the students as in the inadequacy of the school system to keep them interested in school work. To reorganize our curriculum and to improve our methods of teaching will help to a large extent to remedy this defect.

(5) There is a lack of public middle schools to accommodate those who wish to attend. This is a genuine problem we are facing at present. Formerly, most of the higher primary pupils did not prepare for entering middle schools. In the last five or six years, people have exhibited a strong desire for new learning. They come to realize that the work of the elementary school does not satisfactorily prepare for life activities; they must go to middle schools or colleges to attain higher education. Hence in the last few years, the number of graduates of the elementary school taking the entrance examination usually exceeds by far the number of vacancies in the middle school. The following table gives us some idea of the above statement:



SHOWING THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS TAKING THE ENTRANCE  
EXAMINATION TO THE MIDDLE SCHOOL AND THE NUMBER  
OF STUDENTS BEING ADMITTED IN  
DIFFERENT PROVINCES

<i>Province or Special Administrative Area</i>	<i>Number of Students Being Admitted</i>	<i>Number of Students Ad- mitted on Condition</i>	<i>Number of Stu- dents Taking the Entrance Examination</i>
Honan . . .	101	22	460
Shensi . . .	60	20	420
Hupeh . . .	111	34	365
Kwangtung . .	54	9	361
Kwangsi . . .	88	19	358
Hunan . . .	126	12	334
Kiangsu . . .	90	16	303
Yünnan . . .	120	40	285
Chekiang . . .	100	30	283
Shansi . . .	79	33	245
Shantung . . .	85	15	233
Szechwan . . .	70	15	187
Peking . . .	95	12	160
Kwangsi . . .	60	50	155
Fengtien . . .	53	12	120
Chihli . . .	48	17	112
Anhwei . . .	32	8	93
Fukien . . .	52	8	87
Heilungkiang .	87	—	87
Kingchao . . .	40	40	80

The situation is also true of girls, as girls' middle schools are still less in number. To cope with the situation, some of the educators advocate coeducation in middle schools, while others object to it. Arguments have been set forth, and the question is still left unsettled.

In spite of all the defects mentioned above, in spite of all the disturbing elements which retard the progress of China, the Chinese system of secondary education is growing and developing. The new school system has paved the way for further developments. We are not only to reorganize our curriculum and change our subject matter, but also to better our teaching condition and provide a mechanism for adapting to the varying needs of pupils. Educational tests for middle school use are being standardized; and experiments in education, conducted to evaluate the project method, the "Dalton Plan," etc. With a better-trained body of teachers and principals and with a new spirit of reform, one is led to think that the time is not far distant when China will be able to provide a sufficient number of middle schools—schools that keep abreast with modern tendencies and stand for social efficiency and service.



# THE REORGANIZATION OF THE MIDDLE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION  
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## THE REORGANIZATION OF THE MIDDLE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

### 1. SHOULD THE JUNIOR MIDDLE SCHOOL ADOPT AN ELECTIVE SYSTEM?

Realizing the necessity of the reorganization of different curricula after the adoption of the new school system, the National Educational Association, at its eighth annual conference (which was held in Chinan, Shantung, in October, 1922), elected a "Committee of Five" to formulate the curricula for elementary and secondary schools with authority to invite experts to help them in the work. The said committee met at Nanking in December of the same year. The first problem concerning the secondary education brought up in the meeting was whether the junior middle school should adopt an elective system, or all courses of study should be provided for the junior middle school students. The opinion of the Committee was divided. One group of the experts, following the advice of Dr. Paul Monroe, maintained that "the junior middle school should offer a uniform course, or at least one with but slight diversification, for it is a place where all students would acquire the mastery of languages, both native and foreign, of mathematics, and of the social sciences of history and geography." But other experts protested vigorously that in the formulation of such a curriculum, "the principle of variety" should never be neglected. Owing to the heterogeneity of the junior middle school students, there is demand for a curriculum to meet the needs of different capacities, interests, and probable futures among pupils on one hand, and to meet the differentiated needs of society on the other. And especially for those students who have decided to leave school at the end of junior middle school grades, a highly individualized program must be provided, in order to equip each of them for one trade.

However, those who favored a uniform program for the junior middle school pointed out that, at the end of the elementary school period, there is no way of knowing with any degree of accuracy the differences of children in interests, aptitudes, and capacities. Before the formation of a differentiated program to meet the individual differences, it is an important function of the junior middle school to ascertain what these differences are. It would be a mistake to allow pupils to elect their own courses of study upon entrance, because the courses thus chosen at random would limit and determine their future school life. It is also a well-known fact that some pupils drop an elected course merely because it proves difficult. In doing so, his curriculum would become merely fragments of work, and there would be very little promise of satisfactory educational results.

Again, the system of electives presupposes an intelligent and well-informed elector. Before the pupils are allowed to elect their courses of study, the junior middle school must first offer some "general courses" so as to acquaint them with possibilities in the general field of learning, and hence make their future election intelligent.

Finally, most junior middle schools in the interior might be so small and poorly equipped, that they could not afford to provide sufficient courses for election. It would be much better for them to concentrate their efforts in making a uniform program strong and effective, than to give many fragmentary courses of no real value.

## 2. OUR GUIDING PRINCIPLES

After long and careful deliberation, two principles were finally agreed upon.

(1) In order to safeguard the basis of effective democracy and social integration, it is necessary to cultivate common feeling, common thought, and common aspiration among junior middle school students. Therefore the "constants"

in the curriculum must be carefully chosen lest the children should fail to get to the common basis of certain ideals and standards.

(2) The adaptation of secondary education on one hand to meet the needs of different capacities, interests, and probable futures among students, and to meet the differentiated needs of society on the other, is certainly a matter of necessity. Even in the junior middle school curriculum, provision for individual differences should be made. But such differentiation must be introduced cautiously and with full regard to the requirement that universal instruction be given to the fundamentals.

### 3. THE CONSTANT ELEMENTS IN THE CURRICULUM

Under these two guiding principles, the committee starts to work out first a list of constants in the junior middle school curriculum. Every one agrees that the training for citizenship is necessary for all students, no matter what would be their future occupation. A course of civics is therefore recommended as a constant in the curriculum. The term "civics" is used in its broad sense, including not only a knowledge of the social, governmental, and economic order, but also that of character formation. It gives training in ethical judgment and attitude, as well as the spirit and ability of patriotic and social service. Besides, it also pays attention to international relationship. It aims to train students to be members of a home, of a community, and citizens of a nation who also appreciate the spirit of international democracy. The details of the syllabus for this course are too long to be entered into, and have to be left out here.

The Committee recommends general history as a constant with the aims enumerated as follows:

(1) Cultivation in students of the power of adjusting themselves to the environment through the study of evolution of the associated life of men.



(2) Cultivation of "universal love" and the spirit of coöperation in students through the development of human sympathy.

(3) Study of the cause and effect of past events in order to make students understand the truth concerning present affairs and enable them to seek solutions for modern social problems.

(4) Guidance of students constantly through the study of history, especially its method, so as to develop their interest in, and to form their habit of, studying history.

The committee deems it necessary to combine Chinese history and the history of the world into one course in the junior middle school, in order to make students understand the evolution of the world's civilization as a whole. It will cultivate mutual understanding among nations, a sympathetic attitude toward international affairs, and an enlightened outlook on the world. This course will also help the students to penetrate into the real experience of living, and it is far from being the mere piling up of information in isolated heaps.

Realizing the interdependence of the study of history with that of geography, the committee also recommends world geography as a constant. The purposes of this course are: (1) to study the interdependence of man and nature, in order to enable the student to adjust himself to his physiographic, economic, social, and political environment; (2) to explain to the students the real situation of economic interdependence among the nations, so as to develop international sympathy; (3) to tell students the position of China in the world, in order to cultivate the spirit of self-reliance and self-determination of a nation; (4) to lead to a deep appreciation of the beauties of nature, so as to give students some æsthetic enjoyment.

"Composite mathematics" is also recommended as a constant. The aims of this course are: (1) to enable the

students to handle the common mathematical problems of life, and (2) to provide the means for studying natural sciences and advanced mathematics.

Another constant in the curriculum is "general science." The aims of the course are enumerated as follows :

- (1) An explanation of natural phenomena, and their relationships so as to build up fundamental scientific knowledge ;
- (2) To explain the relationship between nature and life ;
- (3) To study some important laws of nature ;
- (4) to study the method of utilizing nature ; and
- (5) to develop the interest of studying science.

The importance of acquiring good health and the knowledge and habits that promote it, is recognized by the committee. Both physical exercise and instruction of practical hygiene and elementary physiology are listed as constants.

Every student is required to have some training in art both for the enjoyment of life and for practical purposes. Music, drawing, and manual training are the courses suggested along this line.

And above all, Chinese language is the most important tool for acquiring knowledge ; so all students are required to study Chinese intensively. The purpose of teaching Chinese is to enable students (1) to have the power of self-expression, (2) to be able to read simple classics, (3) to cultivate the interest in studying Chinese literature, and (4) to write Chinese composition without grammatical errors.

Foreign language is a requirement only for those students who intend to continue their study in the senior middle school. For those who will leave school at the end of junior middle school grades, vocational training is offered as a substitute for foreign language. The complete list of constants in the junior middle school is as follows :

<i>Names of the Courses</i>		<i>Units Required</i>
<b>I. SOCIAL SCIENCES</b>		
1. Civics . . . . .		6
2. History . . . . .		8
3. Geography . . . . .		8
<b>II. LANGUAGES</b>		
1. Chinese Language . . . . .		32
2. Foreign Language . . . . .		36
<b>III. MATHEMATICS</b>		
1. Composite Mathematics . . . . . (Including Arithmetic, Algebra, Plane Geometry, and Trigonometry, in com- posite form)		30
<b>IV. NATURE STUDY</b>		
1. General Science . . . . . (Including Biology, Physics, Chemistry, Astronomy, and Geology, in composite form)		16
<b>V. ART</b>		
1. Drawing	}	12
2. Manual Training		
3. Music		
<b>VI. PHYSICAL TRAINING</b>		
1. Physiology and Hygiene . . . . .		4
2. Physical Exercise . . . . .		12
		164
If excluding Foreign Language		36
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>128</b>

A unit is one semester hour; that is, one fifty-minute period per week for eighteen weeks, excluding national holidays. Laboratory, music, drawing, manual training, physical training, and other class exercises of the same sort which require very little outside preparation, are reckoned at half credit.

The requirements for graduation from the junior middle school are as follows:

I. CONSTANTS (or required courses)	128 units
II. VARIABLES	
1. Foreign Language, or Vocational Training	36 "
2. Free electives	16 "
TOTAL	180 units

#### 4. THE VARIABLE ELEMENTS IN THE CURRICULUM

In order to meet the individual differences of students and differentiated needs of society, the committee allows some variation within the limits of the junior middle curriculum. As already shown in the above list, sixteen units of free electives are provided for each student. But this is not enough. Greater differentiation is allowed along vocational lines. For those students who do not continue their study after graduation from the junior middle school, thirty-six units of foreign language may be substituted by vocational training. The committee is not in favor of an early differentiation. We think it is unwise to split schools into two kinds—one of a trade type for children who, it is assumed, are to be employees, and one of a liberal type for children of the "well to do." But the substitution of foreign language by vocational training will by no means injure the liberal education offered in the junior middle school.

The committee is also aware of the fact that, for the sake of effective and economical administration of curriculum, only a sufficiently large group of students is justified to form a class for instruction in any elective subject. In nine tenths of the middle schools which are in the interior, the number of elective courses must be reduced to a minimum by the fact that the enrollment is too small to permit differentiation, and that financial assets are too narrowly limited. For these various reasons, the committee deems that the school authorities should be allowed to decide what the elective courses should be, and what kind of vocational training should be provided, in their own schools, according to the local conditions.

#### 5. THE CURRICULUM FOR SENIOR MIDDLE SCHOOLS

When this article was written, the curriculum for senior middle schools was still in the process of reconstruction. The final decision will not be made until the committee meets again in the coming June (1923). So far as the writer knows, several parallel programs of prevocational character will be offered in senior middle schools, but the details have not yet been agreed upon.

China has had also technical schools of secondary grades, which have been doing good service, and their foundations are well established. Some of these institutions will perhaps be preserved, and their curricula would not be changed until the new curriculum of senior middle schools produces better results than theirs.

Finally, the writer wishes to emphasize that the internal readjustment of courses of study is far more important than the mere change of the names of constants and variables in the curriculum. The methods of teaching and the motives of students must never be ignored, if we want the new curriculum to be really effective.

# **ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN CHINA**

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## ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN CHINA

### I. BRIEF ACCOUNT OF ITS DEVELOPMENT

Like many other institutions, Chinese public education had a very ancient origin. Like many other institutions, it had a long gap in its history. During the long dark ages (so we may call it), and until only twenty years ago, elementary education was largely taken care of by private families or individuals who tried to keep the wolf away by teaching. Public endeavor was evidenced only in (1) the combined effort of several families to engage a teacher to instruct their children; (2) the school established from the endowment usually in the form of land, by a family primarily for the instruction of the children of the poorer branches of that family; and (3) the school founded by some philanthropic person or agency or other public organs. While the implicit aim of education might be moral and cultural, yet the curriculum was largely limited to some standard books of vocabulary or the classics, the former most rudimentary, the latter often intensely profound—both meaningless to children, and the method was largely memoriter in instruction and prohibitive in discipline.

The comparatively modern type of elementary school, at least as far as the organization and curriculum are concerned, did not make its appearance until about the latter part of the seventies, the earliest being probably the school conducted by Mr. Chang Han-lung at Shanghai (started in 1878). At about the Boxer Rebellion, more schools of the modern type had already been started in different places through private endeavor. The first school codes, as edited by Chang Pei-shi, then Minister of Education, were promulgated by Emperor Kuang-hsü in 1902. This was, however, only to be nullified by the next set of codes, edited by Chang Chih-tung, Chang Pei-shi, and Yung Lu, and



promulgated by the emperor next year. The codes, in regard to the elementary grade of education, provided for :

1. *Nursery or Kindergarten (for Children 5-7)*

Curriculum: (1) play, (2) song's, (3) story, and (4) hand-work. Not to exceed four hours' session per day. To be established in conjunction with existing orphanages and "homes of virtuous wives."

2. *Lower Primary Schools*

Aim: to give to children above seven years of age the knowledge necessary for life, to establish in them the foundation of morality and patriotism, and to promote their physical welfare.

Curriculum: moral instruction, classics (twelve hours a week), language, arithmetic, history, geography, science, physical drill, drawing, handwork (the last two were optional), thirty hours' instruction per week. Five years to complete the course. A variation of curriculum in the form of some combined subjects was permitted.

3. *Higher Primary School*

Aim: to cultivate the virtues of the young citizen, to enlarge his knowledge, and to strengthen his body.

Curriculum: moral instruction, Chinese classics (twelve hours a week), Chinese language, arithmetic, Chinese history, geography, science, drawing and physical drill. Handwork, agriculture and commerce are optional courses.

Thirty-six hours' class work per week. Four years to complete the course.

A school may house both a lower primary school and a higher primary school.

In 1905, by one stroke of the vermilion pen, the old examination system was repealed, and the modern school system was firmly established. In the same year, the administrative organization as it exists to-day in its essentials

was put into effect. Some changes were made on the scheme promulgated only a few years ago. From 1905 till 1912, the most important changes made were: (1) the course in both higher and lower primary schools was to be four years; (2) the curriculum for lower primary schools was simplified with also a curtailment of instructional hours per week; (3) the regulations for girls' education were promulgated to be given in schools separate from boys' schools, with a curriculum similar to that for boys save the addition of work specially appropriate to girls and a comparative emphasis on elementary art subjects.

A special conference of educators was called in Peking in the summer of 1911. The matter of compulsory education was taken up and it was decided to have four years' compulsory schooling with a plan for carrying it out. A group of the delegates favored coeducation in lower primary schools and another group favored the elimination of classes from the elementary curriculum. Due to the opposition from the more conservative wing however, no agreement could be reached on both of these proposals.

It was not long, however, after the conference was adjourned, when the first bombardment, which finally led to the success of the Revolution, was heard from Wuchang; and, with the establishment of the Republic, the two above proposals were put into force, together with other modifications. Another conference of educators was held in 1912. In September of that year, the primary school code and regulations were officially announced, providing a four-year course for the lower primary school, and a three-year course for the higher primary school. The curriculum, as it is still in force, will be discussed later.

In 1914 and 1915 elementary education seems to have suffered from the effects of the revolutionary wars. In both Honan and Anhwei, for some time, the elementary schools

were ordered to be closed, by the governors of the respective provinces! Also, the reactionary force, which was a natural correlate of the monarchical tendency of Yuan Shih-kai, then president of the Republic, worked within him and reflected itself in the restoration of classics as a subject in the elementary curriculum, and even the adoption of the Prussian preparatory school for those who intended to enter the middle school, thus almost turning the elementary schools into schools specially for the proletariat class. Fortunately his immediate downfall saved the educational as well as the political situation, and the reactionary measures were repealed the next year.

A statistical showing of the increase of pupils in the different years will put the situations much more clearly.

1903	859
1904	22,866
1905	85,213
1906	173,847
1907	481,659
1908	821,667
1909	1,187,418
1910	1,469,412
1911	
1912	
1913	2,793,633
1914	3,485,807
1915	3,921,727
1916	4,140,066
1917	3,843,455
1918	
1919	4,884,838
1922-23	6,396,854

It has also been found that there are 20,467 pupils in the elementary vocational schools. Adding this to 6,369,854, we get 6,417,321—the present total number of pupils in schools of all elementary grades conducted by the Chinese. This does not include the Protestant missionary primary schools, which count 184,481 in enrollment in 1921. Assuming that there has been for mission schools no great increase after that date, we get 6,601,802—the sum total of all pupils in primary schools in China to-day, so far as statistical returns are obtainable.

While compulsory education was long contemplated by central authorities, it was, however, a province that first took up the initiative, in 1918, of formulating a definite plan to carry out a program of compulsory education. Under the governorship of Tuchun Yen Sih-San, Shansi has so far the best record in the spread of elementary education. In 1926, the Ministry of Education mapped out a plan and asked the provinces to carry it out in the respective provinces. The plan has contemplated the steps by defining the different communities according to population, and specifying that, by the end of a certain year, a certain kind of locality should have compulsory education carried out, thus:

1921—Provincial capitals and open ports.

1922—County seats and cities.

1923—Towns containing above five hundred families.

1924—Towns containing above three hundred families.

1925 }  
1926 }—Towns containing above two hundred families.

1927—Villages and rural districts containing above one hundred families.

1928—Villages containing below one hundred families.

The program is to be completed in eight years.

The Shansi program has seven steps, to be completed in seven half years, beginning first with the provincial capital,

to be completed in September, 1918, through the sixth period (up to February, 1921, when compulsory education for villages, with above fifty families or such as containing less than five hundred families can conveniently set up union schools with neighboring districts should have been carried out), till August of 1921 it should have been completed even for more sparsely-settled districts.

In 1920, it was found in Shansi that there were 635,218 boys and 94,585 girls who were attending schools, the total being 729,803. The population of that province, according to the most recent statistics (1916), was 10,529,823. This would mean that there were sixty-nine out of one thousand who were attending schools. Now if we adopt the rather universal ratio of school age (six to fourteen) children to the total population, that is, one to five, and divide this into two, as there will be only four years' compulsory education, then we should have one hundred school age children out of one thousand in the population. This would mean that in Shansi, there were then about sixty-nine per cent who were attending schools out of the number that should be in school.

Upon the same basis, we found the lowest limit reaches down below five per cent in some provinces. Outside of Shansi, there were only two provinces that had a record above twenty per cent.

When we, however, do not take the province as a unit, we will find some communities that have been specially progressive. Thus, in Nieshun, Kiangsu, the ratio has already increased to forty-nine per cent and more.

Some progress has already been made since 1920. A recent investigation (1922-1923) made by the Association shows the percentages of the population found in elementary schools by provinces as follows:

# PERCENTAGES OF ELEMENTARY STUDENTS TO TOTAL POPULATION

*(Special Districts Not Included)*

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>Percentage of Students to Population</i>
Peking District	2.21
Chihli	2.42
Fengtien	2.21
Kirin	
Heilungkiang	
Shantung	2.55
Honan	0.89
Shansi	7.20
Kiangsu	1.19
Anhwei	0.49
Kiangsi	0.87
Fukien	1.03
Chekiang	1.84
Hupei	0.76
Hunan	1.09
Shensi	2.31
Kansu	1.88
Sinkiang	0.21
Szechwan	0.91
Kwantung	1.14
Kwangsi	1.70
Yünnan	2.06
Kweichow	0.59

While the quantity has not increased as fast and as consistently as it should, probably due to the instability of political conditions, the quality has been much improved. But, for this, more in future chapters.

## II. ADMINISTRATION

The administrative system of elementary education may be treated under the following headings: (1) central and (2) local authorities, the latter to be again subdivided under (a) provincial, (b) county, and (c) school district.

### (1) *The Central Authorities*

In the Ministry of Education, there is a special division which takes charge of general education. It is manifestly impossible for the Ministry to have direct control of elementary education in a country covering as wide an area as China is. But some of the general codes formulated by the Ministry still retain some influence throughout the country, especially in the matter of curriculum. Also the general plans made by the Ministry as, for instance, that for compulsory education, have served as reminders and stimulants to the provinces. The National inspectors of the Ministry made occasional tours, and elementary education claims part of their attention. Some of the reports are edited and published in permanent form and it is therefore likely to exert some influence on the trend of elementary education.

### (2) *Local Authorities*

(a) Provincial.—The Department of Education. The Department is headed by the Commissioner of Education, appointed by the President upon the Cabinet's consent of a certain nomination by the Ministry of Education. In the Provincial Department of Education there are three divisions, one of which has charge of the "general education" in the province concerned. It is the busiest division, and under the present situation of inadequate staffing little may be expected of it (in the way of constructive efforts in elementary education), beyond routine work. Add to this the fact that there are so many students' "storms" and "strikes" which need their incessant attention, neither much time nor much energy

is left for elementary education, not to say its constructive measures!

The Department has an inspectional staff which make regular tours and occasional visits. Usually the secondary schools have their attention primarily. But they do look over some elementary schools as well and report to the commissioner thereon, who, based on this, allot appropriate rewards or reprimands, as he thinks the case deserves.

With general policies, the governor's aid is to be invoked. His orders carry at least equal weight, as those of the commissioner, with the magistrate, and when the provincial assembly passes an act on elementary education, which seldom takes place, it has of course to be promulgated by the governor. In the governor's office, there is also a special department which deals with educational matters of the province for the governor.

(b) County. In the hsien, or county, the magistrate is held responsible. As the magistrate is appointed by the governor, theoretically the educational conditions of his county during his administration form one of the criteria for his due promotion or degradation.

In his office there is a department which has charge of educational administration in the county. A supervisor is provided. Except the supervisor, the department generally does not do much work.

It is the Bureau of Promotion of Education to which one would look for some educational activity. But we regret to say the duplication of administrative organs has usually caused or at least contributed to its degeneration into an office for routine work.

(c) School district. A hsien, or county, is usually divided into several school districts, each under the control of a "delegate of school affairs," sometimes with an assistant. He is paid next to nothing, and, with some exceptions, he does little to improve or promote education in his locality.



With some schools, a trustee board may be found whose function it is to administer to the general welfare of the school.

While the above picture is not as bright as it should be, proposals have been made to improve the situation, especially in local administration. Thus in the Administrative Conference held last year, definite plans were drawn up for the consolidation of the educational organs in a hsien government into a Board of Education and also for the separation of municipal administration from the jurisdiction of the hsien in which it is located. The latter had been tried in Canton and was almost tried in Kaifeng. The former has also been urged, as in the recent conference of the Council for the Study of Educational Administration in Chekiang. Administrative councils to enlist teachers' participation in provincial and county administration has also been proposed and urged—the most recent instances of which occurred in Nantung and some other hsien in Kiangsu.

Even with the present-day organization, there is one phase on which we should congratulate ourselves. For, while the loose organization and some other intrinsic poor features of administration are incompatible with efficiency of execution, the lack of energy is fortunately somewhat counterbalanced by a happy incompetency to work for uniformity—thus giving initiative an opportunity to develop. The continuance of such a situation would certainly be inexcusable. What we need is such a new organization which (1) secures economy of effort by avoiding duplication, (2) secures efficiency by paying enough to obtain the service of better-trained staff, (3) gives stimulation, encouragement, and guidance without the sacrifice of individual initiative.

### III. SUPPORT

According to the statistical data collected by the Association for Advancement of Education in 1922-1923, the total

expenditures for elementary education amounted to \$20,759,-762\* for lower primary schools and \$10,089,731 for higher primary schools. Dividing the former with 5,814,375, the number of lower primary pupils reported, we had \$3.57 as the per capita annual cost for lower primary schools. Similarly, dividing the latter with 582,479, the number of higher primary pupils reported, we had \$17.32 as the per capita annual cost for higher primary schools.

The numbers of the two kinds of the elementary schools reported were 167,076 and 10,236 respectively. With these as divisors, we get the average annual cost for each school as follows :

For lower primary  
\$124

For higher primary  
\$985

While a mathematical average tells little of the situation, yet when even the average cost for lower primary school should be as low as mentioned above it is at least a startling fact.

Right here we need to consider the sources of supply. The greatest item probably comes from special levy along with land tax.

It would indeed be superfluous to say that both for the maintenance of existing schools and for the addition of new schools, the communities are pressed for funds. The people who have the interest of the whole province in mind sometimes do make proposals for new taxes for the whole province, but oftentimes it is left to the individual community to work out its own salvation.

The per capita educational expenditure is very small, not exceeding ten cents per year.†

\* Chinese currency, whenever dollar or cent is mentioned in this article.

† With the whole population as divisor, thus including women, children, and able-bodied men.

Yet when new taxes are proposed, they often meet with opposition—chiefly from property owners. Tuition, amounting to about a dollar a year, is sometimes charged.

With some schools, the principal takes out a lump sum to run a school. He teaches little or he may not teach at all, and he in turn pays a teacher he engages with a sum out of what he has received. It is of course an unsatisfactory arrangement and it promises to be remedied in the near future.

#### IV. ORGANIZATION

The present organization of elementary schools consists of two grades of schools, the lower primary for four years and the higher primary for three years. Kindergartens are seldom found outside of provincial capitals, great seaports, and special centers as the city of Soochow. Parallel with higher primary schools are the lower vocational schools, which give usually an education similar to that of the higher primary schools, plus a more or less practical tendency.

The new school system that has already been announced by the Ministry of Education will have a six-year organization of elementary schools, with a four-year organization permitted in the rural districts. This mutilated organization will be the most prevalent type for no other reason than it is more economical. The terms "lower" and "higher" will be retained; but while the lower grades may exist in a separate school, the higher grades may only be found in a school with both grades.

In so far as class organization is concerned, it is the ungraded type that is most prevalent, especially in the rural schools. Occasionally, two rooms are found, each housing two grades. In the city, however, it is usually the single-class unit that is found; i. e., each class or grade occupies one room, or with higher grades, changes rooms with other classes.

In the lower primary school, the grade system dominates; in the higher primary school, the departmental plan dominates.

Some sort of platoon plan has been adopted by some schools so as to accommodate a great number of children that come to attend the school.

The primary school usually takes in new pupils in autumn. As usually there is an interval of one year before new pupils are enrolled, those who fail to pass at the end of a year have to repeat a year. But in big schools intermediate classes have been provided for, so as to afford better adjustment for retarders and rapid promoters. Of course such schools are rare. The flexible or shifting plan for instructional organization has been adopted in some few schools to avoid the ordinary lock-step type of organization and to meet the different levels of activities.

With regard to the administrative organization in school, the principal is held responsible. In larger schools, there is now a tendency to democratize it through the organization of school council and the delegating of some power to committees.

## V. THE CURRICULUM

The present curriculum is as follows :

### (1) *Lower Primary Schools*

a.	Moral Instruction	2	hrs.
b.	Chinese	10-14	„
c.	Arithmetic	5-6	„
*d.	Handwork	7	„
*e.	Drawing	{ boys girls	1-2 „

(Beginning with the second year)

f. Singing and Physical Drill 4 hrs.

h. Sewing (girls) 1-2 „

(Beginning with the third year)

Boys, 22-28 hrs.

Girls, 22-29 hrs.

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\* And also singing may be omitted.

(2) *Higher Primary Schools*

a.	Moral Instruction	2 hrs.
b.	Chinese	10-8 „
c.	Arithmetic	4 „
d.	Chinese History and Geography	3 „
e.	Science	2 „
f.	Manual Training	{ Boys 2 „ Girls 1 „
g.	Drawing	{ Boys 2 „ Girls 1 „
h.	Singing	2 „
i.	Physical Drill	3 „
j.	Agriculture	2 „
	(Beginning with the second year)	
k.	Sewing (girls)	2-4 „
l.	English	3 „

(Optional, beginning with the third or the second year  
or take some other foreign language instead.)

Agriculture may have commerce instead.

Manual training, and singing, may be omitted.

Considering the limited resources of the schools, it is really startling to see the extent to which the schools go to provide the children with the variety of the intellectual regimen as made out by the Ministry of Education. While there are, in rural districts, schools whose curriculum is practically limited to reading and writing and some arithmetic, usually we find some singing and to a lesser extent some kind of play. It is the subjects which require concrete materials and equipment that are more frequently found lacking, and, even if present, quite inadequate.

Great changes have been evolving in the last decade or so. The efficacy and appropriateness of "moral instruction" have been brought into question. In many schools,

"citizenship" has filled the niche instead, without much change, I am sorry to say, in the content. But the change even merely in name is significant and augurs for a better day. The substitution of formal physical exercises with play is quite universal. "Local study" has been introduced either as part of a subject or as an independent subject in some schools. Following this there has come "nature study" and more recently "social study." Arithmetic has included calculations on the abacus so as to bring it into closer support with Chinese situations. But the greatest change probably consists in the substitution of the more formal type of material with one approaching more the spoken language (sometimes rendered "vernacular"), the substitution of Wên-li with Pei-hwa. The Conference of the delegates of provincial educational associations decided in 1919 to ask the Ministry of Education to order all the lower primary schools to make this change and all the higher primary schools to have both the Pei-hwa and Wên-li types of materials. In January of the next year, the Ministry gave the order accordingly. Certainly it is a boon to the children of the generations following, and a great step in the cause of elementary education in China, whatever opinion we may hold on the value of Pei-hwa. This, though a more recent reform, is much more universally adopted than the phonetic alphabet, which has been complicated by the controversies over the standardization of pronunciation.

The advance in thought and practice among the Chinese educators of elementary education is nowhere more eloquently expressed than in the proposed elementary school curriculum as drafted by a special committee, appointed by the Associated Conference of the Provincial Educational Associations, in collaboration with some leaders in elementary education of the province of Kiangsu, for long a source of new ideas in Chinese education. Many of the best thoughts and practices have been incorporated. Because it will be of interest to our co-workers in the world, to see the educational

ideas of the Chinese elementary school educators, a translation of it is made as below, and is inserted here as an appendix to this article, though it still waits for further revision at the coming conference of the Provincial Educational Association.

## VI. METHOD

Much of the methods in use can probably be gleaned from the above, especially from the last chapter. A few remarks, however, may still be necessary to show the general trend.

With due allowance for exceptions, it seems safe to say that, so far as method is concerned, the elementary schools would rank first among the several grades of schools in China. For while schools on the secondary and higher levels are still largely addicted to the pouring-in method, it is the elementary schools that are comparatively free from it. It is true that the sing-song type of reading and the use of tracing paper in writing—the latter very rarely—may still exist, but it is here in the elementary schools that we find a more general adoption of the developing method. Only about a decade ago, the Herbartian Five Formal Steps found a general reception here. Teacher's manuals accompanying the school texts were made with the Five Steps as the scheme of every lesson. Then the formality of it was sensed, and the teachers condensed it to three steps, corresponding to the analysis of Herbart himself.

Again it was not quite five years ago when the elementary school educators were discussing and applying the "supervised study" method, which meant a further diminishing of the amount of oral presentation. This continues to the present in many schools, in one form or another.

But at present the attention of the elementary schools is engaged in the study of the project method. Within the last two years there has been scarcely a periodical but has discussions about, and more recently reports on, the use of the project method, and scarcely an institute

but has "project method" on the program. Many schools, including ordinary public schools, are attempting it in some way.

In the last few months, the question of the possibility to apply the Dalton Laboratory Plan to the primary schools has been raised. It is not unlikely that such discussion will be increased in the next year or so.

Whatever opinion we may form on the frequent fluctuation of attention and effort to different theories and practices, we may venture to remark that the elementary school teachers are a very enterprising sort of people and that they are very open-minded to new ideas.

## VII. DISCIPLINE

When the public schools were first established, discipline approached the military kind. It was said that there could be no liberty but implicit obedience in the school as well as in the army. The forming of lines in going to the classroom and in leaving it even in small schools, the concert bowing at a certain command at the beginning and at the end of each recitation, and the formal marching exercises in physical drill—all these savored a military regimen. The rigidity of the sitting and standing posture was enforced. Teacher was the ruler and the autocrat.

Gradually this order was relaxed, partly due to the consciousness of its artificiality and partly due to a better appreciation of the more wholesome pedagogical principles. It was then even officially announced that some liberty should be encouraged if it did not conflict with the purpose of order.

The present tendency seems to be taking a further step. This, if definitely formulated, would probably read: "Liberty or activity is to be encouraged, but a reasonable amount of orderliness is to be maintained."

Except in very poor schools, the teachers as well as the pupils seem to have taken up play as an item of daily



**activities.** Excursions are quite common for city schools in spring or autumn. Questions in the classroom are encouraged, and even communication among pupils when classroom work is going on is judiciously connived at if it does not cause disturbance.

Wholesome incentives are provided in the form of teacher's approval, the awarding of credentials (for punctuality, regular attendance lasting for a certain period, etc.), the giving of inexpensive school supplies (notebooks, pencils, etc.). Correctives are brought more nearly in line with more advanced thoughts on the subject. Detention is less practiced, and deprivation of company or play is more generally adopted. While corporal punishment may still exist in some schools, it is tabooed. The picture certainly forms quite a contrast with the time when "merits" and more usually "demerits" were liberally bestowed.

A mark is generally given for a pupil's conduct at the end of a semester, and with some schools the pupil's family is notified of this as well as of his scholastic attainments. Sometimes a grade is used instead. More recently, however, the vagueness and consequently the inadequacy of it are felt, and a more definite scheme with definite items has been made by the Elementary School of the Southeastern University. The items were adapted from Dr. Clara Chassel's scale to measure citizenship qualities and are grouped into twelve steps according to the difficulty of attainment for each item after two years of experience with it. It has thus secured definiteness to show the pupil as well as the parents in what he has succeeded, and in what he has yet to give special efforts. Thousands of copies have been bought by other schools, and it is likely to exert some influence on the practice of other schools. The writer of this pamphlet has knowledge of three secondary schools and one other elementary school that have incorporated the same idea in their respective schemes.

The pupil self-government idea is found in one way or other in some elementary schools, especially in the higher primary grades. Some of the practice schools have even organized the school into a city or a village with the many departments of government, council, major's office, court, police. A store is run in many schools. The boy scouts and girl guides give another opportunity for training. What has been said above is by no means to be construed that the problem of discipline in elementary schools has all been solved. How to form habits of cleanliness, tidiness, and orderliness; how to secure social solidarity without destroying individuality; how to prepare the youth against the "storm and stress" of adolescence; how to secure all this despite possible opposite influences in the great out-of-school world, are problems as difficult to solve as they are significant. Suffice it to say, however, that the teacher is more universally thinking himself or herself as a friend to the children, not merely an instructor; that discipline is more generally thought of in positive terms as well as in negative terms; that social discipline is finding a place to supplement personal discipline and supplant military discipline. Little is heard of "swiping," and obscene talk is rare. Pupils are active and responsive, and even responsible. They form certainly a contrast to their brothers in the secondary schools as they are. It seems we may venture at least this remark that the discipline in the elementary schools is on the right track.

#### VIII. TEACHER

Two studies were made to determine the financial status of the elementary school teachers, and one of these went into such details as to cover his education, his age, and the length of his service. This was made by Professor Tse Yi Yu, Principal of the Elementary School of Southeastern University, in 1921-1922. Questionnaire blanks were made and distributed to different provinces. Several thousands of

copies were distributed, but only four hundred filled blanks were at last returned. These four hundred cases cover 256 cases from Kiangsu, 62 cases from Chekiang, 12 cases from Shantung, 26 cases from Szechwan, etc.

With regard to their previous education, 56 per cent had graduated from the regular normal schools, 34 per cent had other kinds of secondary or higher education; only 7 per cent had an education below the secondary grade. This is entirely a too favorable representation. But the very fact that such a group should receive a "salary" as stated below makes it the more significant.

Their age ranges from 18 to 56 (Chinese count). The median age is 25.9, which is about 25 according to Western count. For men, the median is 26.4, and the mode is somewhere between 22 and 28. For women the median is 22.1 and the mode is somewhere between 21 and 23. There are very few lady teachers over 30.

These teachers had served in elementary schools for about 4.4 years (median), and represent the experience that can be obtained from such a span of years.

The initial salary was \$125.10 (mean) Chinese currency, while the present salary is \$160.25 (mean). It meant on the average an increase of about \$11.72 per year.

Out of these 400, 62.2% were reported definitely to have been married. (Of the 44 women reporting, 26, that is 59.1%, were unmarried.) Those who were married, had mostly borne more than one child. Besides this, another 18% had to provide for their parents, brothers or sisters, or any combination of them.

According to the calculation of the investigator concerned, a married man teacher with two children should receive at least an annual pay of \$316.45. An unmarried man teacher with two parents to provide for, should receive a minimum annual pay of \$218.95.

Compare this with the actual amount of salary, and you can well sympathize with the teacher for his dissatisfaction

with his lot. And it is no wonder that many teachers should think of leaving the profession.

Within the knowledge of the writer, many teachers of rural schools are receiving a salary far below the median amounts recorded above. They are receiving literally a pittance. Only very recently strikes of teachers for financial reasons were reported from different places (as, e. g., Kashing, Chekiang; and Amoy, Fukien).

Under these conditions one cannot expect too much from the rank and file of the elementary school teachers. But against these odds, the devotion with which the teacher does the work deserves but commendation.

The elementary school teacher is well represented in the local education associations. Some of the teachers form themselves into an association for the study of education. He is, however, poorly represented in the educational association of bigger units, as, e. g., the provincial educational associations. The Association of the Practice Schools of Normal Schools of Kiangsu has exerted much influence in the public elementary schools, and recently Anhwei and Chekiang have started the same kind of organization. At present writing, these three associations are holding a convention in Hangchow—another example of coöperative activities and a sign that augurs well for the progress of elementary education.

The Kiangsu Association of Practice Schools published the "Elementary School." Some of the members have also issued the "Teacher's Help." They will, however, soon be discontinued with the issuing of the "Primary Education" by the Association for the Promotion of Education.

So much for the teacher and his work in general. There remain a few remarks on the problem of the supply of elementary school teachers.

At present, the graduates of the normal schools number less than six hundred in either Kiangsu or Chekiang—the two provinces where there are probably more normal schools

than in any other province. It is true that the teachers are not entirely recruited from the normal schools and it is true also that some graduates of these schools fail to find teaching work. Be it as it may, we cannot escape from the conclusion that the supply is very inadequate if we expect to extend the educational opportunities of elementary education to all children.

Take the province of Kiangsu for example. The number of teachers that will be needed, if the progress of compulsory education is to be carried out, with the basis for this estimate, can be seen from the following :

30,569,599 : whole population.

2,547,400 : half of the children within the compulsory age (6-16). This number is obtained by dividing the whole population with 6, the common ratio of children of compulsory age to population, and 2, for the children are required to attend only four years.

2,547,400

-510,500 . . . . number already in school.

2,036,900 . . . . number to be put into school.

-136,000 . . . . number to be put into schools

1,900,900 [already in existence.

1,900,000 to be divided by 50 as number of pupils for class.

50)1,900,000 number for whom new classes are to be set up.

38,000 classes to be set up.

38,000 to be divided by  $\frac{2}{3}$  (two teachers for three classes) we get 57,000 teachers to be trained.

To prepare for this emergency, the Kiangsu Association for Promotion of Compulsory Education has taken steps to arouse the different communities to set up normal institutes which require two years for graduation. A consistent program has been outlined. To train such a force will cost \$9,120,550. For a six-year program it will cost the people of the province \$1,520,000 each year, which, divided by the sixty counties, means an annual expenditure of \$25,300 per

county. It is no easy matter to meet this demand, but with few exceptions, every county has already started the school.

The province of Shansi, which has already done much in compulsory education, started to train teachers in normal institutes specially set up to meet the urgent needs.

If we take up the whole country, we shall see what a huge force of teachers is needed.

Three hundred sixty million is a conservative estimate of Chinese population. Divided by 12, we get 30,000,000 : minimum number of children to comply with the compulsory education law. Divided by 50, number of pupils for a class, then 600,000 classes are needed. Divide this by  $\frac{2}{3}$  (two teachers for compulsory education for three classes), we get 900,000 : number of teachers needed.

The training of 900,000 teachers just for compulsory education alone is something the magnitude of which can only be imagined, not to mention the immensity of elementary education proper.

## IX. SUPERVISION

Under the chapter on administration, mention has been made of the National Inspectors appointed by the Ministry of Education and the Provincial Inspectors appointed by the Commissioner of Education. Due to the great extent of area of their jurisprudence, their functions have been limited to inspection.

Each county has also a county inspector. He can make usually two rounds of the schools per year. For the inadequacy of this service, the office of the "circuit guide" has been created to supplement it. But the addition of one officer to take charge of the schools in an area which will usually take about a month to make even a flying visit of the schools has proved to have improved the condition very little.

*There has been a tendency on the part of the teacher to belittle the service of the inspector and the "circuit guide." "Their remarks on the work are usually lacking in definiteness"; "They can suggest no better substitute for the piece of work they criticize"; etc., etc.*

There has been also a tendency, notably in the province of Kiangsu, to take a clear departure from the traditional point of view of the work of such officers. In the Commissioner of Education's office of this province, college professors and others have been asked to do part-time work to serve as "guides" to certain branches of educational work of the province. While such work has been largely confined to a secondary field, it seems to indicate that the work and the name of the inspector will have a round-about-face turn in the near future. (The said province, at the suggestion of the Provincial Educational Association, has also formally asked the College of Education of Southeastern University to provide a special short course for the inspectors of the province.)

The above does not mean to reflect on the work of the inspectors. Many of them have done good and faithful work, and also have meant to be of positive help to the teachers. The government also specifies that the "inspectors'" work is not merely inspection, but he should also give suggestions to be of positive help to teachers, and many of the "inspectors" evidently have not been oblivious of this clause.

But the need for better-trained and more efficient positive supervision has been keenly felt. Considering the susceptibility of the Chinese educators to new ideas, it is not unlikely that within the next three to five years, we shall see a great change in this important phase of educational administration.

Meanwhile the administration and the teachers have not been slow to appreciate the importance of the teachers' growth during service. Summer schools have been largely attended, and they claim a large quota among their clientele

from the elementary school teachers. Teachers' institutes, of long or short duration, are a common feature; and occasionally one finds institute work even during the short winter vacation.

Teachers' visits to schools of other districts which are better known for educational work have also become a common feature, more common than in probably any country in the Western world.

The periodicals put out by the big book companies in Shanghai have a wide circulation. So with other educational periodicals. These periodicals have carried new ideas and information to the teachers to inspire or lead them to new activities. Many of the elementary school teachers are thus quite conversant with the new ideas in education; Gary schools, intelligence tests, the project method, and the Dalton plan are found on their lips, if not actually in their practice in one form or another. The elementary school teachers are thus kept in touch with the activities of their brethren in other lands in their common profession to help the younger generation to live a richer, worthier, and better life.

#### X. RETROSPECT AND OUTLOOK

Within a decade and a half since the inception of the modern system of education, China has well started on the road to give the younger generation the rudiments of education. That her accomplishment is not as much as she wished, she is too ready to acknowledge; but we can probably make just appraisal only against the background of her political vicissitudes in the interval.

Thanks to the fruits of the experiences of the educators of other lands, she has much to harvest. The quality of education is hence much better than the spread of such education would indicate.



However, she is not at all oblivious to the spread of it either. Shansi has the lead and Kiangsu is very busy preparing the ground for it.

But the magnitude of the adoption of universal and compulsory education in China is almost beyond imagination. To finance and staff the six hundred thousand classes to give thirty thousand children, the future generation of one fourth of the human race, a rudimentary education, not to say higher stages of education, is a problem the immensity of which can only be intimated, and to the Chinese educator belongs the task as well as the privilege to work for its solution.

NOTE: The writer of this pamphlet has drawn freely from many sources, especially the article by Mr. Yuan Shih-dao in the "Past Fifty Years" of *Shun Pao*, for the first section and the periodical of *Compulsory Education* (Kiangsu).

#### APPENDIX

Among the remarks accompanying this table are :

1. The subjects for elementary schools include: Chinese language, arithmetic, hygiene, citizenship, history, geography, nature study, gardening, industrial arts, fine arts, music, physical culture, and foreign language. A lower primary school, however, may, for the sake of convenience in instruction, combine several subjects into one according to the nature of the subjects, thus :

(a) Hygiene, citizenship, history, and geography may be combined into one subject, to be named "social study."

(b) Gardening may be incorporated into nature study. (Nature study and social study may again be combined into one subject, to be named "common knowledge.")

(c) Industrial arts and fine arts can be combined as one subject, called "arts."

(d) Music may be combined with physical culture.

2. What is indicated in the table (with lines) as to separation and combination of subjects means merely for suggestive purpose. It is to be understood that schools in

different localities have full liberty to make modifications according to what is indicated in the above article.

3. The name for each subject is determined according to its nature, thus.

(a) Hygiene, citizenship, history and human geography, deal with the social facts in the environment, hence the term "social (study)." Nature objects, natural phenomena, and gardening all deal with natural facts, hence the term "nature (study)." When "social study" and "nature study" are combined, it is, for lack of an appropriate term, named "common knowledge," which seems to be more definite than the term "local study."

(b) "Citizenship" differs somewhat from "moral instruction." The latter stresses the cultivation of virtues, while the former stresses the study of the conditions in social environment. Therefore citizenship may be combined into the larger group, "social study." The cultivation of virtues, which was the concern in moral instruction, should be an aim in the teaching of reading. Attention to manners and the giving of advice on conduct may be done in connection with the teaching of all subjects. Hence no separate subject of moral instruction is made, nor is "citizenship" a substitute for "moral instruction."

(c) Industrial arts and fine arts were respectively called "manual arts" and "drawing." But the actual work does not consist of manual arts and drawing alone, but also the appreciation of art objects and the making of food and clothing. Hence the present name.

(d) Foreign language does not necessarily mean English. Hence the general and inclusive term.

4. The total amount of time of instruction for each year in different schools cannot be uniform in practice, nor should it be. Therefore only the minimum total amounts per week are indicated, with the percentage of allotment for each subject, so that different localities or schools may enjoy a due amount of flexibility in adapting it to their uses.

5. The total amounts of time of instruction per week are in minutes. All these amounts can be divided by six, so that each period can be made to consist of sixty or thirty minutes.

6. For each period in each subject, when a fraction is found after applying the percentage amount, it can be made to correspond exactly with the given number of minutes for each period by deducting the fraction if it is more than half of the given number of minutes for each period, or by making up the number if it is less than half of it.

(E. g., 4% of 1080 is 43.2 min. If each period is limited to 30 min., then give up the 13.2 min.; and if each period consists of 45 min., then add 1.8 min. to make it up.)

7. Foreign language may, due to local conditions, begin with the third or the fourth year. Foreign language should occupy about 10% of the time extra of the total amount of minutes listed.

8. Agriculture, commercial training, scout activities, or other special subjects may be introduced by deducting a certain amount of time from the allotment given ordinarily to a certain subject or certain subjects in the curriculum. The time for morning exercises is not included in the time allotments on the curriculum.

Meanwhile, the committee undertook to draft the purposes, the standards, the procedure, and the method for each subject listed in the curriculum. The writer of this pamphlet will take pains to translate parts of these outlines, which were made by the principals and teachers in elementary schools, to show the progress of theory and practice in the interval of only a few years after the modern system has been established and what the general trend is.

Thus, for Chinese language, \* we find:

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\*The course of study of Chinese language was formulated by Mr. Wu Yih-yin, and translated with the collaboration of Mr. Doo Mu-dong.

## A. MAIN PURPOSES.

To practice the usage of spoken and written language, to cultivate sympathy and virtue; to stimulate imagination and thought; to arouse the interest in reading; to build a good foundation for the further study of written language; to cultivate the ability to express one's ideas.

## B. MINIMUM STANDARDS.

## I. For the lower grades:

1. *Spoken Language.* To be able to understand the stories and lectures given in dialect and to carry on simple conversation in it.

2. *Written Language.*

(a) Reading. To recognize about twelve hundred characters which are most useful; to be able to use the phonetic alphabet and read children's literature (in *Pei-hua*) for eight volumes (every volume contains about four or five thousand characters) with the help of a dictionary; to be able to read children's current literature (in *Pei-hua*) which contains five per cent new characters; and to score more than sixty per cent accuracy in sight reading tests.

(b) Composition. To be able to write simple compositions in the form of narratives and other forms of practical value so that others can understand the general idea of it.

(c) Writing. To be able to write one hundred characters (about 15 mm. square) per hour, and write seventy characters (about 35 mm. square) per hour.

## II. For the higher grades:

1. *Spoken Language.* To be able to understand popular lectures given in the standard dialect and to give lectures in it.

## 2. *Written Language.*

- (a) **Reading.** To recognize about three thousand five hundred characters *in toto*; to read more than twelve volumes of children's literature, each containing more than five thousand characters; with the help of a dictionary to be able to read such materials (in *Pei-hua*) containing about ten per cent new words and with difficulty similar to such "periodicals" as *The Children's World* and *The Little Friend*, and such materials (in *Wen-li*) containing ten per cent new characters and with difficulty similar to the dailies or local newspapers, to make no mistake in punctuation (of these materials) and to score more than sixty per cent accuracy in answering general questions after reading.
- (b) **Composition.** To be able to write compositions (in *Pei-hua*) in everyday use in the form of exposition and argumentation, so that others can understand the general idea.
- (c) **Writing.** To be able to write characters in "running" style.

NOTE: If an accurate scale of standards is employed the other mentioned minimum standards should be reached.

## C. METHODS.

1. *Spoken Language.* In low grades, progression is to be largely employed. Afterwards, conversation, lecture and dramatization are to be used instead.

2. *Reading.* To stress appreciation and dramatization.

3. *Written Language.* To emphasize repetition and

practice. For the above three branches, reading, language, and writing are to be taught together, and to be correlated with other subjects.

4. *Project.* For the last three years, self study should be stressed.

5. Spoken language may be taught alone or along with composition; in the absence of a proper teacher this subject may be postponed. One year will be enough when it is taught alone, in the localities where the dialect is akin to the standard adopted.

NOTE: Full explanations will be made and published.

Or, let us take arithmetic:\*

#### A. MAIN PURPOSES.

Practicing to solve problems involving quantity and number, and to acquire the ability to use the tools necessary for the solution of such problems. The main points are as follows:

1. To be able to get experience about number and quantity from their daily work or play.
2. To be able to apply their arithmetical knowledge to their own life.
3. To be able to find out for themselves for (arithmetical) problems.
4. To acquire the habits of accurate and speedy calculations.

\*The course of study of arithmetic was formulated by Mr. Yi Yu-tse, and translated with the collaboration of Mr. Gau Pin-Tai.

**B. MINIMUM STANDARDS.****I. For the lower grades :**

- (a) To be able to do accurately and rapidly four fundamental operations with integers, four fundamental operations with decimals (division without decimal divisor), and compound fundamental operations in measurements (weight, distance, and area).
- (b) To be able to solve, accurately and rapidly, the simple problems involving four fundamental operations in their daily life.

**II. For the higher grades :**

- (a) To be able to do accurately and rapidly four integral fundamental operations, four decimal fundamental operations, and four fractional fundamental operations (the denominator with prime numbers below thirteen, and not complex fractions).
- (b) To be able to do accurately and rapidly the problems involving four integral fundamental operations to two steps, the problems containing fraction or weight, distance and area, the problems which can be solved by decimals, and the problems containing proportion or percentage.
- (c) To be able to apply their arithmetical knowledge to ordinary household bookkeeping.

REMARKS: In accordance with (1) and (2) under "main purposes" the problems involving quantity and number differ in different localities, times, schools, or grades with which pupils are familiar. It is therefore impossible to set definite concrete standards, and teachers are asked to refer to the most appropriate textbooks, the study of local

conditions in which the pupils live, and make modifications accordingly.

The above is only the minimum standards for the use of the mechanical, or the tool phase. If an appropriate scale of standards is used, the minimum standards for the given rate of accuracy and speed should be reached.

### C. TEACHING METHODS.

1. Attention should be given to the fact that full use should be made of the pupils' daily life, so that they will feel the need of arithmetical knowledge.

Therefore in the first year there may be no formal lesson on arithmetic. A teacher should avail himself of any opportunity during recitation or recess, at home or in schools, to help their pupils solve arithmetic problems which confront the pupils. At the same time, teachers must be careful to cultivate their fundamental ideas of quantity and number. They may also provide a special period for games involving some arithmetic, so that the pupils will feel the need of arithmetic in their play and that they will have a special interest in learning arithmetic as a means to further their activities.

In the second year, stress should be put on dramatization (purchases, sales, household affairs, etc.). A teacher may also lead pupils to put them in vicarious situations to teach arithmetic.

2. Emphasis should be put on constant drill in order to form the habits for accurate and rapid operations.

Materials for practice must be grouped together which have mutual relations. The competing method is to be used to show pupils their evident progress, so that they will have further interest in drill.



3. Those problems which have close relation with the pupils' daily life are to have the first claim. Adults' problems, however practical, if pupils cannot imagine the real situation, are not desirable.

4. So far as the theory of method is concerned, induction is preferable to deduction.

If the foregoing has been limited to tool subjects let us take some subjects with a much richer content—industrial arts and fine arts. The outlines for both were made by primary teachers. Both seemed to show a quite modern point of view, while the former showed an evidently democratic trend besides.

Thus, for industrial arts (extracts)\* :

#### A. MAIN PURPOSES.

To study, with practical work, all the sources and uses of all kinds of raw material which has much to do with our daily life in food, clothing, and shelter; the processes and methods of their manufacture; and the making and use of the tools. To arouse appreciative and intelligent sympathy with all the industrial work of the world.

#### B. MINIMUM STANDARDS. LOWER GRADES :

##### 1. *Knowledge.*

- (a) Clothing. To recognize the things made of cotton, silk, and flax; how each kind is made; how to differentiate one from the other; and to know how cloths are made.

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\*The course of study of industrial arts was formulated by Mr. Hsiun Chu-gau and translated with some collaborations by Mr. Kau Cheng-tsa.

- (b) Food. To recognize the common foods made of rice and wheat; and to know the general industrial processes of their making.
- (c) Shelter. To recognize the three principal industrial materials of clay, wood, and metal, mortar and lime, pine, gold, iron, lead, etc., how they become what they are, and what is the relation of each to human welfare.

## 2. *Skill.*

- (a) To make household articles for the use of the projects (playing home)—as clothes, hat, shoes for dolls.
- (b) To make general foods with cooking of boiled rice, egg.
- (c) To give expressions to imagination (dolls' house and furniture), to make simple articles (e. g., flytrap).

## C. TEACHING METHOD.

For the lower grades, the study is to be carried on through the project method alone, or the subject may be taught in connection with the other projects of subjects, or, taking the main purpose of this subject as center of project organization, is to correlate with other subjects so that other subjects will contribute toward the realization of the purpose. As for the work, pupils are allowed to give expression with the results of their study to their imagination. For the study in the higher grades stress should be put on formal industrial problems. It may correlate with nature study, if opportunity presents itself. The practical work should go along with genuine industrial work.

For fine arts (extracts):

## MINIMUM STANDARDS, FOR HIGHER GRADES.

- 1. *Appreciation.* To be able to—
  - (a) Select the best kind out of several kinds of art products, and explain the good points.
  - (b) Select the vantage point in viewing a landscape.

- (c) Compare and criticize the art products of various descriptions.
- (d) Point out the strong and weak points of the works of classmates.
- (e) Explain the colors found on flowers, fruits, and dyed materials.
- (f) Discern directions of time and light on famous pictures.

2. *Execution.* To be able to—

- (a) Indicate the scenes of the four seasons with drawing or cardboard cutting and pasting.
- (b) Draw a landscape containing simple construction, so that those who know the place can identify it at once when looking at the picture.
- (c) Draw cylindrical and rectangular articles, making no great blunders with position, shape, and perspective.
- (d) Form, with scissors or other simple tools, pentagonal, hexagonal, octagonal, elliptical, and other simple geometrical figures at one's will.
- (e) Make several kinds of design (with dotted or continuous lines) with figures of flowers and caterpillars.
- (f) Make designs to decorate book covers, tables, advertisements, or other things amenable to artistic finishing, with flowers or interesting lines.

In carrying out the program, the textbook often forms an important tool in the hands of the teacher, especially as there are many teachers who have had too little training. The Commercial Press, Ltd., and the Chung Hua Book Company have vied with each other in producing the best textbooks for school use, and naturally they have lost no time in keeping progress with the new educational system. The real situation of what the elementary education will be in the near future may be gauged from a translation of the following extracts from the first book of the "New School System Readers" put out by the Commercial Press, Ltd.

新學制國語教科書

第一冊

二 商務印書館出版

兩隻腳 踏踏踏

嘴裏唱 拉拉拉

路上看見好姐姐

頭點點 手拉拉

轉過身來 走到花樹下

眼睛看看花 耳朵聽說話



躬轉<sup>カマ</sup>

路<sup>カミ</sup>

踏<sup>カミ</sup>

兩	Liang	拉	La	手	Shou	下	Hsia
隻	Chih	路	Lu	拉	La	眼	Yen
脚	Chiao	上	Shang	拉	La	睛	Ching
踏	T'a	看	K'an	轉	Chuan	看	K'an
踏	T'a	見	Chien	過	Kuo	看	K'an
踏	T'a	好	Hao	身	Shên	花	Hua
嘴	Tsui	姐	Chieh	來	Lai	耳	Êrh
裏	Li	姐	Chieh	走	Tsou	朵	To
唱	Ch'ang	頭	T'ou	到	Tao	聽	T'ing
拉	La	點	Tien	花	Hua	說	Shu
拉	La	點	Tien	樹	Shu	話	Hua

The meaning of this passage is as follows :

“Ta-ta-ta ! I tread with my two feet. La-la-la ! I sing with my mouth. When I meet my dear sister, I nod to her ; I shake hands with her. Turning back, I walk toward the shade of a blooming tree, enjoy the beautiful flowers, and hear my dear sister’s talk.” \*

A free rendering of this will show the use better than the above more literal translation. Thus : †

“Pep ! pep ! pep ! see how I step !  
 Ping ! ping ! ping ! you hear me sing !  
 I meet my sister by the sheds,  
 We shake our hands and nod our heads.  
 I step into the shade of the teak  
 To watch the flowers and hear her speak.”

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\* Translated by Mr. Yu Tse-peï.

† This translation is made by Professor T. P. Chun.

新學制國語教科書

第一冊

三六 商務印書館出版

母雞落在水裏 鴨把母雞拉起來

母雞走到草地上去哭 小羊看見了

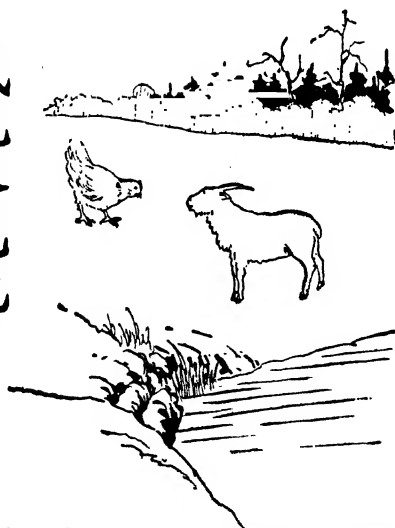
小羊問母雞

你有什麼不快樂

母雞不回答

小羊說 你餓嗎

母雞說 我不餓 我吃水吃飽了



飽嗎？餓嗎？答

地

The meaning of the lesson on page 39 is as follows :

"A hen fell into the water. It was pulled up by a duck. It walked into the meadow and began to cry.

"A lamb saw it, and asked, 'What ails you, madam?' The hen gave no answer. 'Are you hungry?' asked the lamb again. 'No,' replied the hen, 'I am not hungry, I have taken enough water!'"\*

The material presents an entirely different aspect from that in the older series. Tables, legends, short stories, children's dramas—also songs, riddles—are introduced and constitute the bulk of the contents. There are 2,102 words (as compared with 6,060 in the older series) in the first reader, with, however, only 236 different words—thus each word recurring on the average nine times.

Nor is this the only possible instance within the last three years; there has been much talk about children's literature, and many attractive supplementary readers have been issued by the two big book companies mentioned and some other publishers. Another expression of a new age in education, an age that is well inclined to the theory of "Paidocentricism"!

While the writer of this pamphlet is not unaware of the fact that there is evidently much room for improvement, in the proposed new things, he has nevertheless taken pains to present them here, for it seems to point clearly to the ushering in of a new age.

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\* Also translated by Mr. Yu Tse-pel.

**HOW TO EDUCATE CHINA'S ILLITERATE  
MILLIONS FOR DEMOCRACY IN  
A DECADE**

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OF THE CHINESE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE  
ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION**

**BULLETIN 15**

**1923**

**VOLUME II**

**CHINESE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE  
ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION  
PEKING, CHINA**





FIRST GRADUATION EXERCISE OF THE "FOUNDATION CHARACTER SCHOOLS" STUDENTS  
JULY, 1922, CHANGSHA, HUNAN PROVINCE, CENTRAL CHINA





SECOND GRADUATION EXERCISE OF THE "FOUNDATION CHARACTER SCHOOLS" STUDENTS  
DECEMBER, 1922, CHANGSHA, HUNAN PROVINCE, CENTRAL CHINA.



## HOW TO EDUCATE CHINA'S ILLITERATE MILLIONS FOR DEMOCRACY IN A DECADE

China is again at the parting of the ways! Whither is she heading? toward Democracy or Autocracy? With her great man power and natural resources, she could be either a blessing or a peril to the world. This will largely depend upon the success or failure of her present experiment in democracy.

But can democracy succeed in a nation where eighty per cent of the people cannot read or write their own language? Hardly! China's illiterate millions must be educated, and educated soon, if democracy is to prove a blessing to herself and to mankind.

### THE LITERARY REVOLUTION

No greater contribution has ever been made to the cause of popular education in China than that made recently by the Literary Revolution in abolishing the classical language and adopting the Pei-hua (spoken language) for all literary purposes. Until recently the Chinese classical language has been the only recognized literary medium for many centuries. It is as different from the spoken language as Latin is from English. To learn to use it with any degree of proficiency means a lifetime of study. This at once puts it beyond the reach of the common man.

The classical language is not only difficult to learn, but also inadequate to express modern thoughts and ideas. As Professor Hu Shih, one of the foremost leaders of the Renaissance Movement, puts it: "The war cry of the Literary Revolution is 'No dead language can produce living literature.' Its slogan is 'Abolish the dead language and adopt the living tongue!'" The controversy began early in 1917 and went on for two years, and after that opposition

gradually died down. Since 1919 the Pei-hua has spread throughout the length and breadth of the land. Not only are the leading journals of the country published in Pei-hua, but by virtue of its very simple and natural style, the number of novels, periodicals, weeklies, and dailies, has been multiplied many times.

The rather rapid success of the Revolution in adopting Pei-hua as the national literary medium may be accounted for by the fact that, in the first place it is spoken by over three fourths of the Chinese people; in the second place it has already, through the past centuries, produced a vast amount of literature, a literature, as Professor Hu has pointed out, more extensive and varied than any modern European language ever produced at the time of its establishment as a national language; and in the third place, in the words of Professor Hu: "The time has long been ripe for this revolution; two thousand years of collective effort in linguistic revision and ten centuries of literary activity in the living tongue—these are the real factors which have made such a rapid success possible." It can be readily understood how the adoption of the Pei-hua simplifies considerably the process of learning to read and write the Chinese language.

### THE NATIONAL PHONETIC SCRIPT

It is true that over three fourths of the Chinese people speak Pei-hua, which is now practically accepted as the National Language throughout the country; but its sounds and tones vary considerably in different provinces and also in every province. For this reason and no other the Ministry of Education, in the spring of 1913, the second year of the Republic, called the "Conference on the Unification of National Pronunciation." As a result of this Conference the pronunciation of seven thousand characters was agreed upon. It was hoped that with the help of the phonetic script, these pronunciations are to be propagated and unified throughout the provinces.

As this script is a comparatively new creation, and has not been fully tested out, it remains yet to be seen whether it will do the work. However, phonetic experts are working patiently on needed corrections, and the day ought not to be far distant when it can be used to great effectiveness. When the national pronunciation is scientifically determined and the script improved, the latter will not only be a means of unifying the pronunciation of the National Language, but it will also make an invaluable contribution to the problem of popular education. It will do this by substituting the new phonetic script for the old "*Fan Chieh*" (an old Chinese system of indicating sound) and thus will serve as a very important stepping-stone to learning the pronunciation of Chinese characters.

That the adoption of Pei-hua facilitates immensely the study of the Chinese language no one can dispute. But the bigger question of "how to get the illiterates to study the language" remains to be worked out. Ever since the Student Movement began in 1919, thoughtful persons, particularly students, have come to realize very keenly the urgency and the importance of educating the common people. The bitter experiences of recent years, from causes without and within, and the writings of the Renaissance Movement, have driven home to them the lesson that the uplift of the nation means the uplift of the masses. Consequently, "free schools," for illiterate children and adults, have sprung up like mushrooms all over the country. Most of them are conducted by students. Nearly every school, from higher primary up, runs at least one "free school." But the leaders being students, many of whom are naturally inexperienced and all of whom are busily engaged in their own studies, "free school" work has been carried on in a spasmodic fashion. In fact, through the lack of textbooks, that adequately meet the needs of the illiterate and a lack of system and coördination, very little, if any, concrete results have been achieved.



To make any impression at all upon the illiterate millions two factors seem at least to be indispensable. They are as follows :

### I. AN EDUCATIONAL TOOL

Confucius has well said : "The mechanic who wishes to do his work well must first sharpen his tool." In order to make the educational tool sharp and effective it ought to have at least two qualities :

(1) It must be a tool that enables the illiterate to acquire a *maximum* vocabulary within a *minimum* time. The simple reason for this is that the average illiterate, having to "struggle for his rice bowl" most of the time, cannot afford four to five years to attend school. (2) Its vocabulary must consist only of the characters most frequently used in Pei-hua, so that no time or energy shall be wasted over characters for which he has no use in his everyday life.

With these qualities in mind, the members of the Popular Education Section of the National Committee of the Y. M. C. A. of China set to work. For a clearer understanding of the work, it may be necessary to point out here that the popular education work of the National Committee owes its origin and inspiration to the army Y. M. C. A. work, conducted under the auspices of the National War Work Council, U. S. A., for the Chinese Labor Corps in France during the World War. Those two hundred thousand laborers, coming from all walks of life, were fairly representative of the rank and file of a large portion of China's illiterate millions. The writer and his colleague, Mr. Daniel C. Fu, had the privilege of serving them in the capacity of educational secretaries and of starting the first Chinese paper issued in their behalf, known as *Laborers' Weekly*. Ever since this experience with the laborers, over five years ago, they have been making a special study of mass education, with a view to working out some means to help solve the problem of illiteracy in China. After several years of study and investigation the tool

finally developed was a series of readers called "Foundation Characters," a course based on one thousand of the most commonly used characters in Pei-hua, selected after a long process of tests and experiments. Mastery of this vocabulary will give the common man a foundation knowledge of the Pei-hua and will enable him to write simple business letters, keep accounts, and read simple newspapers intelligently.

Meanwhile, quite independently, Professor H. C. Chen, of the National Southeastern University, Nanking, had been for several years conducting practically the same kind of research on what he calls the "determination of the vocabulary of the common people." The first thousand characters of the highest points of frequency of the two researches, one based on the empirical method and the other on the scientific, were compared. It was a deep satisfaction to all concerned when it was found that no less than eight hundred characters were just the same. Space in this paper does not permit a detailed account of Professor Chen's work, but let it suffice to say that it involved a very laborious and tedious process of scientific selection from standard Pei-hua literature, both ancient and modern, and an investigation of magazines and papers for various classes of people. Fifty different kinds of literature, totaling nearly one million characters, were covered in this study. With the coöperation of Professor Chen and the assistance of a number of Chinese students of education, who served in the capacity of educational secretaries to the Chinese Labor Corps in France during the war, our *final* vocabulary was determined upon.

Based upon this vocabulary, a course called "Foundation Characters," consisting of four books, was prepared. In each book there are twenty-four lessons, containing ten to eleven characters each. They are designed for the twenty-four week days of the month. Each lesson is divided into three parts, a picture for interest, a reading exercise in the character based on the picture, and individual

new characters. The picture that they know and understand is thus used to introduce the unknown characters in the reading exercise. The term required for the completion of the "Foundation Characters" course is four months of classroom work, of one hour and a half each day.

## II. EDUCATIONAL CAMPAIGN

Having worked out the tool, the next logical step was to discover some device by which it could be put into effective operation. No spasmodic or individual efforts would be of much avail. To promote an educational program for over three hundred million illiterates, *organized coöperative efforts* are indispensable. As has already been pointed out, one of the outstanding reasons for the general failure of this kind of work is the *laissez-faire* policy usually employed, the almost total lack of system and coördination.

An adequate educational campaign aims at enlisting as many volunteer workers as possible, and coördinating all the forces available in any given community. The chief responsibility in such a campaign is placed on the local leaders, for it is a campaign not only to educate the illiterates that they may become good and intelligent citizens, but also to educate the rich and the literati that they may share their possessions, material or intellectual, with their less privileged brothers and sisters, by contributing to the Campaign fund and by volunteering to serve as teachers, superintendents, and supervisors for a period of four months at a time.

The "educational tool" and the "educational campaign" as mentioned above, seemed like good theories on paper, but who knew whether they would work? In order to convince the public, as well as ourselves, of their value and practicability, Changsha, the capital city of Hunan province, in Central China, was chosen as the first experiment station. Hence

*The Changsha Campaign.* The purpose of the campaign was to start a forward movement toward making Changsha

one hundred per cent literate by arousing popular enthusiasm for the idea and by demonstrating a method. The goals originally chosen for the first term were: (1) one thousand illiterates in one hundred classes; (2) each pupil to learn to read and write one thousand characters ("Foundation Character Course") in four months, by spending one to one and a half hours each day.

A general committee of seventy leading members of the city, representing business men, college presidents, editors, officials, guild leaders, pastors, teachers, and students, was organized. Out of this general committee five subcommittees, on finance, recruiting teachers, recruiting pupils, securing classrooms and publicity respectively, were appointed to set up the campaign. For purposes of publicity the following means were used:

1. Fifteen hundred posters, picturing China's problem of illiteracy and need of education.

2. Five hundred official proclamations issued by the governor, urging all citizens who have illiterate children or apprentices to avail themselves of the opportunity to learn.

3. Twenty-six thousand dodgers "exhorting education," giving necessary information concerning the "Foundation Character Schools."

4. Daily newspaper material to the newspapers.

5. Two large meetings of shop-masters, chiefly from the manual trades.

6. Mass meeting for the city with the governor presiding.

7. A general parade by college and middle school students, who carried large banners and lanterns with such suggestive and appealing sentences as these: "An illiterate man a blind man," "Is your son blind?" "An illiterate nation a weak nation," "China's salvation? Popular Education," "Can you endure to see three fourths of China go blind?"

For recruiting purposes, the city was divided into seventy-five districts. Teams of students were organized,

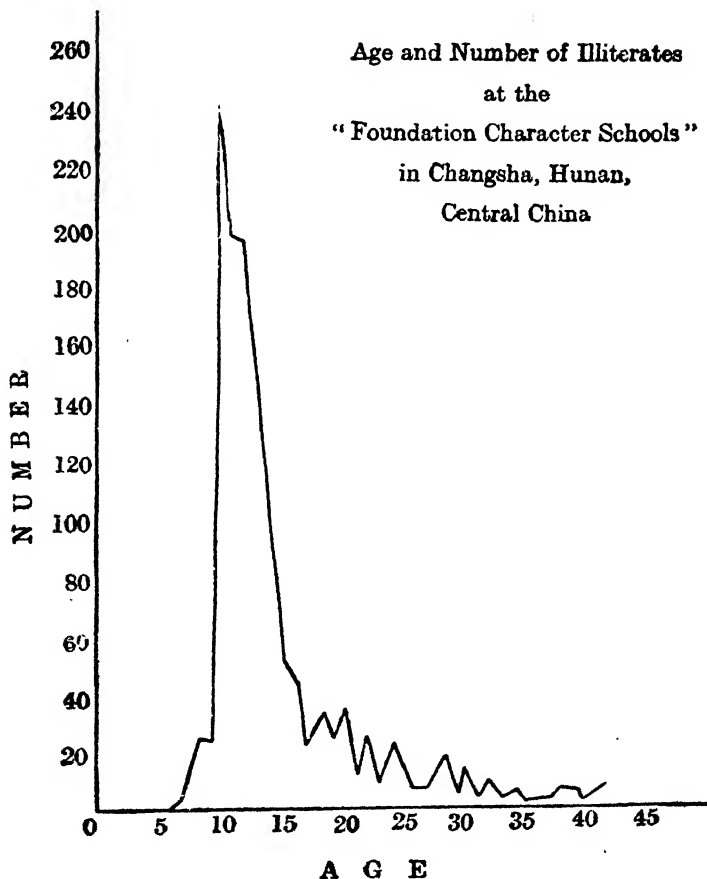
trained, and sent, with registration cards and other necessary literature, to visit the shops and homes, district by district. The work was unexpectedly successful. Recruiting had to be stopped after two thirds of the districts were canvassed. In three afternoons the teams recruited about fourteen hundred boys and men.

Eighty teachers were recruited from the teaching staffs of government, mission, and private schools. Every one of the teachers fulfilled the two qualifications: (1) a graduate of a normal school or high school, and (2) at least three years' experience in teaching. These men taught from one and a half to two hours each evening. One hour was devoted to "character" lessons. The rest of the time was divided between moral talks, singing, and playing. The teachers received no salary. Four dollars each per month was allowed for ricksha fare. Several training classes in methods of teaching, conducting games, and singing were held for the teachers.

Over sixty meeting places were secured in all sections of the city. Primary schools, churches, guildhalls, temples, club houses, private residences, the Y. M. C. A., and other places were utilized. The teachers themselves elected a president and four supervisors. These in turn were assisted by three secretaries to provide the necessary supervision. One of the devices used for encouraging study and attendance was the wearing of badges, which were graded according to the colors of the Chinese flag. Successful students of the monthly examination were awarded one of the five badges (according to the number of characters learned) at a small commencement exercise to which guests were invited. This scheme worked very effectively.

The school term lasted from March to July, 1922. The twelve hundred boys and men who attended the classes to the very last day of the term took the final examinations. Nine hundred sixty-seven passed and were given certificates by the governor of the province on the twentieth of July, when the graduating exercises were elaborately celebrated.

A study of the twelve hundred boys and men shows that their ages ranged from six to forty-two years. The significant fact, however, is that 81.1% of the entire student body were between the ages of ten and twenty. The following graph will show the distribution of the ages of the pupils:



The unusually high percentage of youths between ten and twenty certainly indicates, among other things, their eagerness for an education and their accessibility. It is indeed fortunate that this most needy and most "mouldable" group should be at the same time the most accessible. Ten years hence they will be the very members who will play a very important part in society. So, while it is not possible to cover the three hundred million illiterates all at one time, it is good strategy to concentrate the attack, principally, though not entirely, upon these youths.

A second outstanding fact is the diversity of trades and professions they represent. The 846 male pupils whose trades and professions were registered represent no less than 55 different lines. The distribution of the trades and professions of the pupils is shown by the following table:

<i>Trade</i>	<i>No.</i>
Laborers . . . . .	285
Small Business Apprentices . . . . .	150
Tailors . . . . .	55
Gardeners . . . . .	47
Ricksha and Car Pullers . . . . .	33
Shop Boys . . . . .	28
Carpenters . . . . .	22
Cobblers . . . . .	20
Employees . . . . .	19
Silversmiths . . . . .	11
Scavengers . . . . .	11
Policemen . . . . .	10
Mortar Mixers . . . . .	10
Coolies . . . . .	10
Varnishers . . . . .	9
Bamboo Workers . . . . .	8
Coin Workers . . . . .	7
Chair Bearers . . . . .	7
Blacksmiths . . . . .	6

<i>Trade</i>	<i>No.</i>
Lumber Dealers . . . . .	6
Coppersmiths . . . . .	5
Dyers . . . . .	5
Vegetable Sellers . . . . .	5
Carters . . . . .	5
Herbalists . . . . .	5
Field Plowers . . . . .	6
Fishermen . . . . .	4
Barbers . . . . .	4
Cooks . . . . .	4
Rice Shop Workers . . . . .	4
Firecracker Makers . . . . .	4
Butchers . . . . .	3
Tile Dealers . . . . .	3
Pig Buyers . . . . .	3
Fuel Gatherers . . . . .	3
Distillers . . . . .	2
Beggars . . . . .	2
Weavers . . . . .	2
Laundrymen . . . . .	2
Ironmongers . . . . .	2
Spectacle Makers . . . . .	2

And one each of the following:

Mason	Needle Dealer	Umbrella Dealer
Flag Bearer	Cloth Dealer	Foreign Goods Dealer
Boatman	Rice Seller	Poultry Dealer
Bricklayer	Dry Goods Dealer	Printing Shop Worker
Embroiderer	Incense Seller	

Note that the men who are least expected to be interested in learning, attended the schools, such as beggars, scavengers, ricksha pullers, fuel gatherers, pig buyers, chair bearers, and herbalists.



This March to July Campaign as an experiment was a satisfying success. As the final goal of the Educational Campaign was to make the city of Changsha one hundred per cent literate, the process of enrolling new illiterates from term to term will continue until that goal is reached. Two months later, in September, Changsha started its fall work with an enrollment of fourteen hundred new students. After four months of study another final examination was held, and 1,010 passed successfully. The town once more celebrated a big commencement in the usual Chinese manner!

*The Chefoo Campaign.* The unusual success of the Changsha campaign gave the promoters great encouragement to start campaigns in other parts of China. The next center chosen was Chefoo, in the province of Shantung, the province in which China's great sage, Confucius, was born. The plan adopted in Chefoo was practically the same as that used in the Changsha Campaign. A general committee of leading citizens was organized and the same five subcommittees were elected. The whole town was back of the campaign. Shops were closed on the day of the opening mass meeting. The attendance turned out to be so big that it was necessary to hold simultaneous meetings in two places, the largest guild-hall and the largest theater in town. The meetings were immediately followed by a city-wide educational parade in which more than fifteen thousand business men, students (both men and women), gentry, scholars, and artisans participated. Over three hundred high school boys and girls and normal school students volunteered to serve as recruiters. Fifty-two teams were organized and sent out to canvass the fifty-two districts, as mapped out by the Recruiting Committee. In two days' time the boy teams enrolled over fifteen hundred boys and men and the girl teams over seven hundred girls and women. The youngest of those enrolled was seven, and the oldest sixty-seven years of age. Like Changsha, however, the great majority were of the adolescent age.

One hundred teachers were recruited among the faculty members of the public and private schools of the city, seventy men and thirty women. These teachers likewise receive no salary. They agreed to teach for the regular school term of four months, one and a half hours each evening, and \$4 (Mex.) per month was allowed for ricksha fare. Altogether fifty "Foundation Character Schools" were established in all parts of the city. The schools have been going on for nearly two months. The average attendance was reported so far to be ninety per cent. The slogan of the Chefoo Campaign was, "To make Chefoo one hundred per cent literate within five years."

The news of the successful experiments made in Changsha and Chefoo spread soon enough. Requests have been coming in steadily from many cities, large and small, to help them start campaigns. This situation was both encouraging and embarrassing. Judging from the results so far achieved, the campaign plan would stand a good chance of success in similar large cities. It will be recalled, however, that in those two campaigns, it was found necessary to have a large army of trained teachers and also a good sum of money to pay the ricksha fares of the teachers and supervisors, as well as to buy school equipment. But in most of the smaller towns and counties, and particularly in the rural districts, both teachers and money are difficult to get. So if the illiterate millions in such places are to be educated, some other plan must be worked out. It must be a plan which will enable one teacher to teach a large number of illiterates in one class, at a minimum cost to the community, while at the same time preserving the invaluable elements of volunteer service and coöperation of a big city-wide campaign. If such a plan could be worked out successfully, then we would not merely educate the illiterates by the thousand but by the million.

Kashing, a small Chinese county in Chekiang province, East China, was then chosen for the experiment. Hence

*The Kashing Experiment—Teaching Chinese Characters to two hundred illiterates in one class by one teacher through the aid of lantern slides.*

The Kashing Experiment was conducted in the Kashing High School. Both the faculty and the students of the school were very enthusiastic, and volunteered to serve in any capacity required by the experiment. It is important to note that it was being conducted *in* a school, and *by* a school, and not through some other agency. Any other middle school in China or any college or university may duplicate in practically every point.

#### NIGHT SCHOOL FACULTY

Four teachers—two for each of the two schools being conducted—were chosen from the Kashing High School Faculty. Each of these was responsible for a fortnight's teaching, alternately, or a total of two months' time for each instructor. These teachers were from the younger faculty group, and are distinguished for originality, teaching method, and patience.

For the purpose of personal supervision, student volunteers were used to act as assistants, each to take charge of one group of illiterates, averaging twenty in a group. The duties of the assistant were: (1) To check up the attendance of his own group, (2) to supervise the reading and writing of the lesson, (3) to get the brighter ones of the group to help the slow ones, (4) to be personally acquainted with every one in the group, and (5) to look the pupils up should any of them be absent.

These student volunteers averaged sixty in number, and met their classes twice a week, spending an average of one and a half hours at each recitation.

## THE RECITATION

Keen interest was maintained by the use of the story method in connection with each character as it was thrown on the screen. Chinese characters are so constructed as to present a picture, real or imaginary, of the thing to be represented. The character 雪 ("snow") is made up of 雨 ("rain") and 冫 ("mountain"), if observed from a certain angle. As the rain falls from the clouds on the mountain it is frozen and becomes snow. Such an appeal to the imagination and memory of the illiterate has a powerful effect upon the mind. The character thus becomes a part of the student's mental equipment. Other characters of interest are: 信 for "belief," where the part for 人 ("man") gives weight to his message 言 ("words"). 忠 ("loyalty") is made of the "heart" (心) in the very "midst" (中). That is whole-hearted, true to the core.

A Chinese character has many different meanings, sounds, and uses. In the class the teacher illustrates each profusely by everyday language intelligible to the illiterate.

The lesson itself is divided into three parts — a colored picture for interest, a lesson in the character duplicating the picture, and individual new characters. The picture that they *know* and understand is thus used to introduce the *unknown* character lesson. The lesson period may be summarized as follows:

I. Reviewing former lessons either from the screen or books, 10-15 minutes.

II. Lantern slide period for new lesson, 30-40 minutes.

1. First the colored picture is thrown on the screen. All the ingenuity of the teacher is brought to bear on making this picture a part of the pupil's life. This is done by skillful questions to which the class replies, thus drawing out the vocabulary of the lesson. The vocabulary and the picture are vitally related to the student's daily occupation.

2. The lesson. The idea of the lesson has already been imparted by the picture—the *known* leading to the *unknown*. Then the reading lesson as it appears in the textbook is shown and the entire class asked to read and reread it backwards, forward, or in any other manner ingenuity suggests at the moment.

3. Individual new characters, which are used in the lesson ten or eleven nightly, are then thrown on the screen one by one and drilled. They are magnified one thousand times, and create an impression so vivid that only those visiting the school can rightly judge the psychological effect.

III. Reviewing period with lights on—20 minutes.

Each pupil makes a careful study of his own textbook, under the supervision of the assistant teacher. The textbook corresponds to the pictures and characters first appearing on the screen, and is brought back and forth nightly by the pupil.

Slates are now given out by the assistant teachers, and under their continued supervision the pupil writes all the characters learned that night. During the period a copy book is placed in the hands of each pupil. In this the order of strokes is indicated by numbers, thus enabling the pupil to learn handwriting by himself. The slates are taken up after the recitation.

IV. General final review by the class for the night, lights off—5 minutes.

The entire lesson is again passed before the pupil's eyes as a life panorama or as an old experience which he has had fixed on his mind that night. Often at this time short talks on morals or citizenship are given.

## RESULTS OF THE FIRST MONTH'S EXPERIMENT

In spite of much inclement weather there was an average attendance of about 150 per night at each school.

The first book of 250 characters was mastered with astonishing thoroughness and rapidity. At the first examination, practically the entire class passed the various tests given, with an average grade of 95%. Over 30% of the classes attained the perfect mark of 100%. This feat breaks all records for popular education schools.

The Kashing Experiment has been found to have the following advantages over the Changsha method of teaching :

1. The lantern picture is an attraction in itself.
2. More intense concentration.
3. Group action and group spirit very pronounced.
4. Gives pupil unique points of contact through the mind, eye, ear, and throat.

The eye rests upon a character magnified 1,000 times, the black strokes contrasting sharply with the brilliantly lighted screen. Guests have noted the intensity of the contrast. The ear drum receives vibration from 200 voices at one time, as the entire class drills the character under the teacher's direction. The action of each separate throat as it calls out the character adds to the impression made on the brain. The total resultant of all these impressions is one of tremendous concentration.

5. Characters can be mastered with greater rapidity than the ordinary classes of one teacher to twenty pupils.

6. Large increase in the number of students reached per teacher.

The visitors from the community who came to observe the schools were so powerfully impressed with the effectiveness of the method that they soon set the county in motion. Two mass meetings for the students and the citizens were called. The students' mass meeting took place on the day of the Students' Movement Anniversary, the fourth of May. Over eight hundred students (both girls and boys) attended this meeting. Three days later the citizens met in the Town Hall. It was passed unanimously at this meeting that a county-wide Educational Campaign be launched this fall, using

the lantern slide method. A "Citizens' Educational Committee," consisting of thirty leading members, both men and women of the county, was organized and authorized to make all necessary preparations for setting up the fall campaign. Twenty-one members of this committee have already subscribed to the campaign fund to help defray any initial expenses that may be incurred.

What do these campaigns show? Four things.

Illiterates, particularly the young, are very eager to learn when opportunity is offered to them. Chinese people can be taught to read the Chinese language in a short period of time when the right method is employed. The great enthusiasm for educating the illiterates which one finds everywhere among the thinking classes can be translated into practical and sacrificial service when properly organized and maintained. A million can be taught where a thousand were taught before and at no more cost.

### THE FOLLOW-UP PROGRAM

A question of great importance in this popular education movement is: "What is to be done with the graduates of the 'Foundation Character Schools'?" It seems obvious that a strong and well-planned program ought to be worked out to follow them up in order to make the effort spent in promoting campaigns and establishing schools most worth while. As far as can now be seen, there are at least four educational channels through which the graduates can be followed up:

#### I. CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

After graduation, the students should be given an opportunity to go through another four months' training in continuation schools where such general subjects as geography, arithmetic, Chinese history, elementary science, ethics, etc., would be taught. These continuation schools of course should be different in nature from the "Foundation

Character Schools." In addition to the difference in curriculum, they should have a different type of classes, which would meet in large numbers and with less frequency. When the students have gone through the second period of training they will have received a pretty good elementary education. In the continuation schools chief emphasis should be laid on the training of students for citizenship.

## II. SCHOLARSHIPS

Among the graduates of the continuation schools there will doubtless be found a good number who will be fitted for further training in middle schools or even in colleges and universities. Such graduates should be selected through a process of examination or an intelligence test. After selection, the well-to-do ones could be encouraged to go to higher institutions of learning on their own support, while the deserving but poor ones ought to be provided with scholarships secured in the following two ways :

1. The community itself from which the students come might build up a "scholarship fund," the interest of which would be used for helping such students to go to school.
2. There are doubtless many public as well as private schools and colleges which would be willing to grant scholarships to worthy students.

With the system of continuation schools and scholarships it is earnestly hoped that we can, on the one hand, help to build up for China a strong intelligent middle class, which, after all, will constitute the backbone of the nation, and, on the other, discover as well as train for China future leaders in all walks of life, who would otherwise have no opportunity to rise to positions of leadership.

## III. LITERATURE

The graduates of the continuation schools should be followed up with good literature. It is clear that the movement should produce a sufficient amount of good



literature for them, for the possibility is that mediocre students will revert to illiteracy sooner or later, and the gifted ones may pick up the less desirable kinds of literature. So it becomes imperative that a supply of good literature, based upon the "foundation character" vocabulary, be produced. The following types of literature have been planned.

- (a) Books and pamphlets on science, citizenship, sanitation, industry, agriculture, economics, ethics, history, geography, arithmetic, letter writing, etc.;
- (b) Dailies, weeklies, monthlies;
- (c) Novels, stories, dramas;
- (d) Poems, songs, games, etc.

In the production of the above literature a coöperative plan has been agreed upon between the National Health Council, the Department of Education of the Southeastern University, and the National Association for the Advancement of Education in China. This coöperation is most necessary in view of the fact that a very large amount of literature will have to be produced, and produced in the near future.

#### IV. READING CLUBS

Reading clubs are necessary in order to supervise and guide the students in their earnest desire for further improvement and education. Such clubs will be equipped with reading facilities and provided with suitable books and magazines. It is expected that with the organization of these clubs the graduates of the continuation schools will have another opportunity of furthering their education, and cultivating the habit of reading.

Judging from the results achieved so far, it seems that this Popular Education Movement bids fair to spread all over the country in the near future. The "Kashing Experiment" will undoubtedly greatly accelerate it. With the

coöperation of the leading educational institutions, business and student organizations and governmental agencies in the country, there would be reasonable hope of reaching a large portion of the illiterate millions within a few years. What tremendous effect the increase of millions of reading people may have upon China and the world can well be imagined! The world, however, need not feel alarmed at this prospect. So long as the great powers are willing to give China a "square deal" and let her develop herself unhampered, there is not only no possibility of her turning militaristic or Bolshevistic, but she will have a great contribution to offer to humanity.

Is it mere accident that China is preserved through all these centuries, while other republics and empires of equally noble history have fallen and gone? Is it mere accident that China has the greatest and the most homogeneous people on the face of the globe? No, it cannot be! Quite on the contrary, we are convinced, China has a mission toward the war-torn world, and that mission, we believe, is to teach it "the way of peace." She loves peace, and the world has jeered at her for it. She was once the teacher of Asia, the cradle of the world's civilization. She began practicing democracy centuries before the discovery of the world's greatest republic, the United States of America. Such a great past deserves a great future! The sooner concerted efforts are made from home or abroad to help make education universal in China, the sooner will she be able to perform her mission for the world.



**STATISTICAL SUMMARIES OF CHINESE  
EDUCATION**

**BULLETIN 16**

**1923**

**VOLUME II**

**CHINESE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE  
ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION  
PEKING, CHINA**



## FOREWORD

This statistical report has been prepared to answer some simple questions in regard to the numerical aspect of Chinese education. As the administrative units of education and schools in China at present do not keep records sufficiently analytic, so the questionnaires we sent out for investigation have been of a very simple nature. Even this task rightly belongs to governmental activities. But as political dissension has made it impossible for the Ministry of Education to collect data from provinces which are not under the direct control of the Peking government, this Association has deemed it necessary to assume this responsibility mainly for the purpose of answering the so many questions of such nature which have come to the Association from time to time.

This investigation began in May, 1922, and ended in April, 1923. The data for higher colleges and universities have been secured directly from the institutions themselves, being guided by lists furnished from the Ministry of Education, the Educational Directory of China and newspaper announcements. Of the 125 colleges investigated, 93 institutions sent in returns, the data for the remaining 32 institutions have been taken from the 1919 report of the Ministry. A few missionary and private institutions have sent their reports too late to be included.

Data on government and private secondary education including normal schools, secondary vocational schools and middle schools, have also been secured directly from the institutions themselves, based on most up-to-date lists furnished by provinces and special districts upon the request of the Association. Facts about the secondary school students in missionary institutions have been taken from "The Christian Occupation of China." About two thirds

of the institutions have sent in returns; the data for the remaining one third are taken from the 1919 report of the Ministry.

In regard to elementary vocational schools, the only data available are from the 1919 report of the Ministry. The National Association of Vocational Education has a much more comprehensive list of elementary vocational schools investigated by Dr. Huang. Yet returns on students and other items are incomplete and so cannot be included in this summary.

Data on both higher primary and lower primary schools established by the government and private individuals have been secured directly from the counties (hsiens). Four fifths of the data on lower primary schools and nearly three fourths of the data on higher primary schools are based on returns thus secured, the rest being supplied by the 1919 unpublished report of the Division of General Education, Ministry of Education. Data on missionary elementary education have also been taken from the "Christian Occupation of China."

A few words should be said about the traditional private schools which are still numerous in this country, but owing to the absence of available accurate data they are not included in this report. In a city like Nanking, with a population of less than 400,000, there are more than 500 such schools within the city wall, having a total enrollment of about 12,000 pupils, being more than all the students in modern schools put together. The same thing can be said of Canton, a city more than twice the size of Nanking, where there are more than 1,000 such schools with an enrollment of more than 20,000. As we go farther into the inland, we find that modern schools become less and less, while these traditional schools become increasingly numerous. It is very conservative to remark that the number of pupils in these traditional schools are at least equal to those in modern schools. Those who are actually receiving instruction in China to-day are at least twice as many as there are reported in this bulletin.

This investigation is mainly made under the direction of Mr. H. T. Hsueh, the Statistician of the Association, who is assisted by two able assistants, Mr. Yang Ke-ta and Mr. Ying Tung-chih. Mr. Yeh Chao-lin, Mr. Ma Keng-yu, and Mr. Yang Shu-shiao have also rendered valuable service in preparing basic tables. It is Mr. Chu Chi-ming who puts the material in its present form. We are also indebted to both Mr. C. S. Luke and Mr. Y. Woo, who have spent much time and energy in verifying all the figures by going through all the tedious process of mechanical calculation.

TAO TEH-SHIN  
(W. T. TAO)





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# STATISTICAL SUMMARIES OF CHINESE EDUCATION

## DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS IN ALL GRADES OF SCHOOLS

(All students in Government, private, and Protestant missionary schools included)

TABLE I.

<i>Provinces, Special Districts, and Territories</i>	<i>No. Elementary Students</i>	<i>No. Secondary Students</i>	<i>No. College Students</i>	<i>Total</i>
Peking District . . . . .	85,020	7,641	13,671	106,332
Chihli . . . . .	555,127	12,473	2,169	569,769
Fengtien . . . . .	326,910	9,401	659	336,070
Kirin . . . . .	68,785	2,283	102	71,170
Heilungkiang . . . . .	51,463	1,804	75	53,342
Shantung . . . . .	777,771	11,066	787	789,624
Honan . . . . .	282,589	8,362	426	291,377
Shansi . . . . .	800,827	11,857	863	813,547
Kiangsu . . . . .	394,037	17,226	4,611	415,874
Anhwei . . . . .	95,979	8,628	171	104,778
Kiangsi . . . . .	225,478	7,297	907	233,682
Fukien . . . . .	150,817	6,260	843	157,920
Chekiang . . . . .	416,202	11,513	1,041	428,756
Hupeh . . . . .	236,789	8,411	2,577	247,777
Hunan . . . . .	324,451	14,698	1,799	340,948
Shensi . . . . .	217,654	3,620	224	221,498
Kansu . . . . .	122,018	1,600	190	123,808
Sinkiang . . . . .	5,757	85	—	5,842
Szechwan . . . . .	575,636	12,174	1,428	589,238
Kwangtung . . . . .	376,799	11,914	1,716	390,429
Kwangsi . . . . .	201,526	6,683	276	208,485
Yünnan . . . . .	203,172	4,697	115	207,984
Kweichow . . . . .	66,855	2,273	230	69,358
Special Districts and Territories . . . . .	41,040	838	—	41,878
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>6,601,802</b>	<b>182,804</b>	<b>34,880</b>	<b>6,819,486</b>

# STATISTICAL SUMMARIES OF CHINESE EDUCATION

## PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS IN DIFFERENT GRADES OF SCHOOLS

*(Students in Catholic schools not included)*

TABLE I<sub>2</sub>

<i>Kind of School</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
University and College .	34,880	0.51
Normal School . . .	38,277	0.56
Normal Institute . . .	5,569	0.08
Middle School . . .	118,598	1.74
Secondary Vocational .	20,360	0.29
Elementary Vocational .	20,467	0.30
Higher Primary . . .	615,378	9.02
Lower Primary . . .	5,965,957	87.48
TOTAL . . . . .	6,819,486	100.00

## AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER SCHOOL

### ACCORDING TO KIND OF SCHOOLS

*(With the exception of college students, all missionary students are not included)*

TABLE I<sub>3</sub>

<i>Kind of School</i>	<i>No. School</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
University and College	125	34,880	279.0	1
Normal School . . .	275	38,277	139.2	3
Normal Institute . .	110	5,569	46.8	6
Middle School . . .	547	103,385	189.0	2
Secondary Vocational	164	20,360	124.1	4
Elementary Vocational	439	20,467	46.6	7
Higher Primary . . .	10,236	582,479	56.9	5
Lower Primary . . .	167,076	5,814,375	34.8	8
TOTAL . . . . .	178,981	6,619,792	37.0	—

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER AND OFFICER ACCORDING TO KIND OF SCHOOLS

TABLE I<sub>a</sub>

<i>Kind of School</i>	<i>No. Teachers &amp; Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
University and College . .	5,613	34,880	6.2	7
Normal School	4,487	38,277	8.5	5
Normal Institute	526	5,569	10.5	4
Middle School	9,349	103,385	11.0	3
Secondary Vocational . .	3,349	20,360	6.1	8
Elementary Vocational .	2,478	20,467	8.2	6
Higher Primary	39,061	582,479	14.9	2
Lower Primary	223,279	5,814,375	26.0	1
TOTAL .	288,142	6,619,792	22.9	

PER STUDENT COST ACCORDING TO KIND OF SCHOOLS

TABLE I<sub>b</sub>

<i>Kind of School</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Expenditure \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Student Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
University and College . .	34,880	13,950,424	399.95	1
Normal School	38,277	4,454,265	116.37	3
Normal Institute	5,569	179,654	32.26	5
Middle School.	103,385	6,600,256	63.84	4
Secondary Vocational . .	20,360	2,790,005	137.03	2
Elementary Vocational . .	20,467	600,470	29.34	6
Higher Primary	582,479	10,089,731	17.32	7
Lower Primary	5,814,375	20,759,762	3.75	8
TOTAL .	6,619,792	59,424,567		



PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS ACCORDING  
TO KIND OF SCHOOLS

TABLE I<sub>c</sub>

<i>Kind of School</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percent- age of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
University and College . .	34,033	847	34,880	2.42	8
Normal School	31,553	6,724	38,277	17.56	1
„ Institute	5,170	399	5,569	7.16	3
Middle School.	100,136	3,249	103,385	3.14	7
Secondary Vocational .	18,908	1,452	20,360	7.13	4
Elementary Vocational .	18,710	1,757	20,467	8.52	2
Higher Primary	547,297	35,182	582,479	6.04	6
Lower Primary	5,445,815	368,560	5,814,375	6.33	5
TOTAL. .	6,201,622	418,170	6,619,792	6.31	

## INCREASE OF STUDENTS FROM 1906-1923

*(Missionary students not included)*

TABLE I.

<i>Date of Report</i>	<i>Total No. of Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Percentage Female Students</i>
1906	468,220	306	0.07
1907	883,218	1,853	0.21
1908	1,144,299	2,679	0.23
1909	1,536,909	12,164	0.79
1910	—	—	—
1911	—	—	—
1912-1913	2,933,387	141,130	4.81
1913-1914	3,643,206	166,964	4.58
1914-1915	4,075,338	177,273	4.34
1915-1916	4,294,251	180,949	4.21
1916-1917	3,974,454	172,724	4.35
1917-1918	—	—	—
1918-1919	—	—	—
1919-1920	—	—	—
1920-1921	—	—	—
1921-1922	4,987,647	417,820	—
1922-1923	6,615,772	417,820	6.32

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AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER COLLEGE  
ACCORDING TO SOURCES OF SUPPORT

TABLE II<sub>1</sub>

	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
National . .	30	10,535	351.2	2
Provincial . .	48	9,801	204.2	3
Private . .	29	10,524	332.9	1
Mission and Foreign . .	18	4,020	223.3	4
TOTAL .	125	34,880	279.0	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER  
AND OFFICER IN COLLEGES  
ACCORDING TO SOURCES OF SUPPORT

TABLE II<sub>2</sub>

	<i>No. of Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>	<i>No. of Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
National . .	2,077	10,535	5.1	3
Provincial . .	1,508	9,801	6.5	2
Private . .	1,033	10,524	10.2	1
Foreign and Mission . .	995	4,020	4.0	4
TOTAL .	5,613	34,880	6.2	

PER STUDENT COST OF COLLEGES  
ACCORDING TO SOURCES OF SUPPORT

TABLE II<sub>3</sub>

	<i>No. of Students</i>	<i>Expenditure (\$ Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Student Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
National . .	10,535	6,254,452	593.68	2
Provincial . .	9,801	2,034,590	207.40	3
Private . .	10,524	1,203,699	114.38	4
Mission and Foreign . .	4,020	4,457,683	1,108.88	1
TOTAL .	34,880	13,950,424	399.95	

\* The expenses of the Union Medical College have greatly affected the average.

PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL NUMBER  
OF STUDENTS IN COLLEGES  
ACCORDING TO SOURCES OF SUPPORT

TABLE II<sub>4</sub>

	<i>No. of Male Students</i>	<i>No. of Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
National . .	10,130	405	10,535	3.84	2
Provincial . .	9,794	7	9,801	0.07	4
Private . .	10,399	125	10,524	1.19	3
Mission and Foreign . .	3,670	350	4,020	8.71	1
TOTAL .	33,993	887	34,880	2.54	

# STATISTICAL SUMMARIES OF CHINESE EDUCATION

## AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER COLLEGE ACCORDING TO KINDS OF COLLEGES

TABLE II<sub>6</sub>

<i>Kind of School</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
University . . . . .	35	13,098	274.2	2
Teachers College . . . . .	8	3,093	386.6	1
Agricultural College . . . . .	7	1,271	181.6	5
Technical College . . . . .	13	2,026	155.9	6
Commercial College . . . . .	8	1,890	236.3	4
Medical College . . . . .	7	832	118.9	8
Law College . . . . .	33	10,864	329.2	3
Others . . . . .	14	1,806	129.0	7
TOTAL . . . . .	125	34,880	279.0	

## AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER AND OFFICER IN COLLEGES ACCORDING TO KINDS OF COLLEGES

TABLE II<sub>6</sub>

<i>Kind of School</i>	<i>No. Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
University . . . . .	2,092	13,098	6.3	3
Teachers College . . . . .	731	3,093	4.2	6
Agricultural College . . . . .	300	1,271	4.2	5
Technical College . . . . .	429	2,026	4.7	4
Commercial College . . . . .	280	1,890	6.7	2
Medical College . . . . .	219	832	3.8	8
Law College . . . . .	1,084	10,864	10.0	1
Others . . . . .	478	1,806	3.8	7
TOTAL . . . . .	5,613	34,880	6.2	—

## PER STUDENT COST ACCORDING TO KINDS OF COLLEGES

TABLE II<sub>7</sub>

<i>Kind of School</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Expenditure \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Student Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
University . . . .	13,098	8,633,704	659.16	2
Teachers College . .	3,093	1,542,511	498.71	3
Agricultural College .	1,271	336,285	264.58	6
Technical College . .	2,026	802,863	396.28	5
Commercial College .	1,890	245,499	129.89	7
Medical College . . .	832	625,588	751.91	1
Law College . . . .	10,864	1,008,191	92.80	8
Others . . . . .	1,806	755,783	418.48	4
TOTAL . . . . .	34,880	13,950,424	399.95	

## PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS ACCORDING TO KINDS OF COLLEGES

TABLE II<sub>8</sub>

<i>Kind of School</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
University . . . .	12,692	431	13,123	3.28	3
Teachers College . .	2,809	284	3,093	9.12	1
Agricultural College . . . .	1,271	—	1,271	—	—
Technical College . .	2,018	8	2,026	0.39	5
Commercial College . . . .	1,887	3	1,890	0.16	6
Medical College . . .	815	17	832	2.04	4
Law College . . . .	10,851	13	10,864	0.12	7
Others . . . . .	1,650	131	1,781	7.35	2
TOTAL . . . . .	33,993	887	34,880	25.40	

## AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER COLLEGE

TABLE II.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	37	13,671	369.5	1
Chihli . . . .	9	2,169	241.0	7
Fengtien . . .	4	659	164.8	16
Kirin . . . .	1	102	102.0	20
Heilungkiang .	1	75	75.0	22
Shantung . . .	5	787	157.4	17
Honan . . . .	3	426	142.0	18
Shansi . . . .	4	863	215.8	13
Kiangsu . . . .	15	4,611	307.4	4
Anhwei . . . .	2	171	89.5	21
Kiangsi . . . .	4	907	226.8	10
Fukien . . . .	4	843	210.8	14
Chekiang . . .	4	1,041	260.3	6
Hupeh . . . .	8	2,577	322.1	3
Hunan . . . .	8	1,799	224.9	11
Shensi . . . .	1	224	224.0	12
Kansu . . . .	1	190	190.0	15
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . .	6	1,428	238.0	8
Kwangtung . .	5	1,716	343.2	2
Kwangsi . . . .	1	276	276.0	5
Yünnan . . . .	1	115	115.0	19
Kweichow . . .	1	230	330.0	9
Jehol . . . .	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . . .	—	—	—	—
Chahar . . . .	—	—	—	—
TOTAL . . . .	125	34,880	279.4	



AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER  
AND OFFICER IN COLLEGES

TABLE II<sub>10</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	2,408	13,671	5.7	15
Chihli . . . . .	330	2,169	6.6	12
Fengtien . . . .	131	659	5.0	22
Kirin . . . . .	18	102	5.7	17
Heilungkiang . .	10	75	7.5	8
Shantung . . . .	154	787	5.1	21
Honan . . . . .	75	426	5.7	16
Shansi . . . . .	165	863	5.2	19
Kiangsu . . . . .	772	4,611	6.0	13
Anhwei . . . . .	36	171	4.8	23
Kiangsi . . . . .	111	907	8.2	4
Fukien . . . . .	144	843	5.9	14
Chekiang . . . .	133	1,041	7.8	7
Hupeh . . . . .	325	2,577	7.9	6
Hunan . . . . .	195	1,799	9.2	2
Shensi . . . . .	43	224	5.2	20
Kansu . . . . .	26	190	7.3	9
Sinkiang . . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . . .	254	1,428	5.6	18
Kwangtung . . .	217	1,716	7.9	5
Kwangsi . . . . .	20	276	13.8	1
Yünnan . . . . .	13	115	8.8	3
Kweichow . . . .	33	230	7.0	10
Jehol . . . . .	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . . . .	—	—	—	—
Chenar . . . . .	—	—	—	—
<b>TOTAL . . . . .</b>	<b>5,613</b>	<b>34,880</b>	<b>6.2</b>	

## PER STUDENT COST IN COLLEGES

TABLE II<sub>11</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Expendi- ture \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Student Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	13,671	5,832,639	426.64	7
Chihli . . . .	2,169	1,213,681	559.56	3
Fengtien . . .	659	1,127,743	1,711.29	1
Kirin . . . .	102	14,610	143.24	17
Heilungkiang .	75	16,524	220.32	12
Shantung . . .	787	233,689	296.94	8
Honan . . . .	426	190,591	447.40	5
Shansi . . . .	863	147,336	170.73	14
Kiangsu . . . .	4,611	2,542,573	551.42	4
Anhwei . . . .	171	129,544	757.57	2
Kiangsi . . . .	907	57,126	62.98	21
Fukien . . . .	843	218,274	258.93	9
Chekiang . . .	1,041	159,335	153.06	15
Hupei . . . .	2,577	465,619	180.69	13
Hunan . . . .	1,799	437,523	243.20	10
Shensi . . . .	224	26,736	119.36	19
Kansu . . . .	190	28,410	149.53	16
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . .	1,428	323,348	226.43	11
Kwangtung . .	1,716	733,860	427.66	6
Kwangsi . . . .	276	20,648	74.81	20
Yunnan . . . .	115	16,200	140.87	18
Kweichow . . .	230	14,415	62.67	22
Jehol . . . .	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . . .	—	—	—	—
Chahar . . . .	—	—	—	—
<b>TOTAL . . . .</b>	<b>34,880</b>	<b>13,950,424</b>	<b>399.95</b>	

## 14 STATISTICAL SUMMARIES OF CHINESE EDUCATION

PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL  
NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN COLLEGES

TABLE II.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District	13,018	653	13,671	4.78	1
Chihli . . .	2,146	23	2,169	1.06	4
Fengtien . .	659	—	659	—	—
Kirin . . .	102	—	102	—	—
Heilungkiang .	75	—	75	—	—
Shantung . .	787	—	787	—	—
Honan . . .	426	—	426	—	—
Shansi . . .	863	—	863	—	—
Kiangsu . . .	4,521	90	4,611	1.95	3
Anhwei . . .	171	—	171	—	—
Kiangsi . . .	901	6	907	0.66	5
Fukien . . .	839	4	843	0.47	7
Chekiang . .	1,041	—	1,041	—	—
Hupch . . .	2,517	60	2,577	2.33	2
Hunan . . .	1,788	11	1,799	0.61	6
Shensi . . .	224	—	224	—	—
Kansu . . .	190	—	190	—	—
Sinkiang . .	—	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . .	1,428	—	1,428	—	—
Kwangtung .	1,716	—	1,716	—	—
Kwangsi . .	276	—	276	—	—
Yünnan . . .	115	—	115	—	—
Kweichow . .	230	—	230	—	—
Jehol . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Chahar . . .	—	—	—	—	—
<b>TOTAL . .</b>	<b>34,033</b>	<b>847</b>	<b>34,889</b>	<b>2.43</b>	

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DISTRIBUTION OF GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE SECONDARY  
SCHOOL STUDENTS*(Missionary Schools Students not included)*TABLE III<sub>1</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Normal School Students</i>	<i>No. Middle School Students</i>	<i>No. Secondary Vocational School Students</i>	<i>No. Normal Institute Students</i>	<i>Total</i>
Peking District .	812	5,469	1,100	260	7,641
Chihli . .	2,847	7,480	782	1,364	12,473
Fengtien . .	2,464	3,712	765	507	7,448
Kirin . .	1,157	960	166	—	2,283
Heilung- kiang . .	316	629	228	110	1,283
Shantung . .	2,286	6,291	1,436	1,053	11,066
Honan . .	1,607	3,036	1,792	438	6,873
Shansi . .	3,442	6,910	1,177	53	11,582
Kiangsu . .	4,521	9,216	2,809	413	16,959
Anhwei . .	1,737	1,938	1,411	219	5,305
Kiangsi . .	1,804	4,165	1,058	—	7,027
Fukien . .	1,180	3,773	951	90	5,994
Chekiang . .	3,039	5,131	1,774	59	10,003
Hupeh . .	943	5,524	970	—	7,437
Hunan . .	2,627	8,953	1,853	413	13,846
Shensi . .	706	1,829	426	—	2,961
Kansu . .	713	777	87	—	1,577
Sinkiang . .	85	—	—	—	85
Szechwan . .	2,015	9,581	401	177	12,174
Kwangtung . .	1,401	9,107	301	230	11,039
Kwangsi . .	641	3,921	192	—	4,754
Yünnan . .	1,385	2,940	297	58	4,680
Kweichow . .	265	1,664	306	28	2,263
Jehol . .	121	178	—	76	375
Suiyuan . .	87	102	78	—	267
Chahar . .	76	99	—	21	196
<b>TOTAL . .</b>	<b>38,277</b>	<b>103,385</b>	<b>20,360</b>	<b>5,569</b>	<b>167,591</b>

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER  
 NORMAL SCHOOL

TABLE III.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District . . . . .	6	812	135.3	13
Chihli . . . . .	28	2,847	101.7	19
Fengtien . . . . .	27	2,464	91.3	21
Kirin . . . . .	6	1,157	192.8	5
Heilungkiang . . . . .	2	316	158.0	11
Shantung . . . . .	12	2,286	190.5	6
Honan . . . . .	13	1,607	123.6	16
Shansi . . . . .	14	3,442	245.9	1
Kiangsu . . . . .	24	4,521	188.4	7
Anhwei . . . . .	9	1,737	193.0	4
Kiangsi . . . . .	10	1,804	180.4	8
Fukien . . . . .	9	1,180	131.1	15
Chekiang . . . . .	19	3,039	159.9	10
Hupei . . . . .	4	943	235.8	2
Hunan . . . . .	19	2,627	138.3	12
Shensi . . . . .	3	706	235.3	3
Kansu . . . . .	12	713	59.4	26
Sinkiang . . . . .	1	85	85.0	24
Szechwan . . . . .	20	2,015	100.8	20
Kwangtung . . . . .	16	1,401	87.6	22
Kwangsi . . . . .	4	641	160.3	9
Yünnan . . . . .	12	1,385	115.4	18
Kweichow . . . . .	2	265	132.5	14
Jehol . . . . .	1	121	121.0	17
Suiyuan . . . . .	1	87	87.0	23
Chahar . . . . .	1	76	76.0	25
TOTAL . . . . .	275	38,277	139.2	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER  
OR OFFICER IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

TABLE III.

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>No. Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	117	812	6.9	20
Chihli . . . .	235	2,847	12.1	5
Fengtien . . .	204	2,464	12.1	4
Kirin . . . .	85	1,157	13.6	1
Heilungkiang .	36	316	8.8	11
Shantung . . .	174	2,286	13.1	2
Honan . . . .	160	1,607	10.0	9
Shansi . . . .	337	3,442	10.2	7
Kiangsu . . . .	607	4,521	7.4	15
Anhwei . . . .	202	1,737	8.6	12
Kiangsi . . . .	205	1,804	8.8	10
Fukien . . . .	180	1,180	6.6	22
Chekiang . . .	429	3,039	7.1	18
Hupeh . . . .	105	943	7.0	19
Hunan . . . .	328	2,627	8.0	13
Shensi . . . .	70	706	10.1	8
Kansu . . . .	118	713	6.0	26
Sinkiang . . . .	11	85	7.7	14
Szechwan . . .	325	2,015	6.2	24
Kwangtung . .	228	1,401	6.1	25
Kwangsi . . . .	60	641	10.7	6
Yünnan . . . .	193	1,385	7.2	16
Kweichow . . .	42	265	6.3	23
Jehol . . . .	17	121	7.1	17
Suiyuan . . . .	13	87	6.7	21
Chahar . . . .	6	76	12.7	3
<b>TOTAL . . .</b>	<b>4,487</b>	<b>38,277</b>	<b>8.5</b>	

## PER STUDENT COST OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

 TABLE III<sub>1</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Expenditure \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Student Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	812	139,778	172.14	3
Chihli . . . .	2,847	309,024	108.54	14
Fengtien . . .	2,464	228,702	92.82	18
Kirin . . . .	1,157	168,029	145.23	8
Heilungkiang .	316	76,459	241.96	1
Shantung . . .	2,286	204,144	89.30	21
Honan . . . .	1,607	196,924	122.54	9
Shansi . . . .	3,442	406,443	118.08	10
Kiangsu . . . .	4,521	762,297	168.61	4
Anhwei . . . .	1,737	279,408	160.86	5
Kiangsi . . . .	1,804	205,872	114.12	12
Fukien . . . .	1,180	104,769	88.79	23
Chekiang . . .	3,039	272,159	89.56	20
Hupeh . . . .	943	105,234	111.59	13
Hunan . . . .	2,627	219,821	83.68	24
Shensi . . . .	706	71,388	101.12	17
Kansu . . . .	713	63,379	88.89	22
Sinkiang . . . .	85	19,703	231.80	2
Szechwan . . .	2,015	235,560	116.90	11
Kwangtung . .	1,401	111,199	79.37	25
Kwangsi . . . .	641	96,602	150.71	7
Yünnan . . . .	1,385	144,960	104.66	16
Kweichow . . .	265	—	—	26
Jehol . . . .	121	12,806	105.83	15
Suiyuan . . . .	87	7,800	89.66	19
Chahar . . . .	76	11,805	155.33	6
TOTAL . . . .	38,277	4,454,265	116.37	



## PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

TABLE III<sub>5</sub>

<i>Provinces</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District	541	271	812	33.37	2
Chihli . . .	2,212	635	2,847	22.30	8
Fengtien . .	2,051	413	2,464	16.76	11
Kirin . . . .	1,006	151	1,157	13.05	16
Heilungkiang .	200	116	316	26.71	1
Shantung . .	1,921	365	2,286	15.97	12
Honan . . . .	1,420	187	1,607	11.64	17
Shansi . . . .	2,629	813	3,442	23.62	6
Kiangsu . . .	3,751	770	4,521	17.03	10
Anhwei . . . .	1,335	402	1,737	23.14	7
Kiangsi . . . .	1,696	108	1,804	5.99	20
Fukien . . . .	1,003	177	1,180	15.00	13
Chekiang . . .	2,498	541	3,039	17.80	9
Hupeh . . . .	807	136	943	14.42	14
Hunan . . . .	1,856	771	2,627	29.35	3
Shensi . . . .	656	50	706	7.08	18
Kansu . . . .	664	49	713	6.87	19
Sinkiang . . .	85	—	85	—	—
Szechwan . . .	1,517	498	2,015	24.71	5
Kwangtung . .	1,208	193	1,401	13.78	16
Kwangsi . . . .	641	—	641	—	—
Yünnan . . . .	1,345	40	1,385	28.88	4
Kweichow . . .	227	38	265	14.34	15
Jehol . . . .	121	—	121	—	—
Suiyuan . . . .	87	—	87	—	—
Chahar . . . .	76	—	76	—	—
<b>TOTAL . . .</b>	<b>31,553</b>	<b>6,724</b>	<b>38,277</b>	<b>17.57</b>	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER  
 NORMAL INSTITUTE

 TABLE III<sub>6</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	5	260	52.0	7
Chihli . . . . .	31	1,364	44.0	12
Fengtien . . . .	13	507	39.0	13
Kirin . . . . .	—	—	—	
Heilungkiang . .	3	110	36.7	15
Shantung . . . .	22	1,053	47.9	9
Honan . . . . .	9	438	48.7	8
Shansi . . . . .	1	53	53.0	6
Kiangsu . . . . .	7	413	59.0	1
Anhwei . . . . .	4	219	54.8	5
Kiangsi . . . . .	—	—	—	
Fukien . . . . .	2	90	45.0	11
Chekiang . . . .	2	59	29.5	16
Hupeh . . . . .	—	—	—	
Hunan . . . . .	7	413	59.0	2
Shensi . . . . .	—	—	—	
Kansu . . . . .	—	—	—	
Sinkiang . . . . .	—	—	—	
Szechwan . . . .	3	177	59.0	3
Kwangtung . . .	5	230	46.0	10
Kwangsi . . . . .	—	—	—	
Yünnan . . . . .	1	58	58.0	4
Kweichow . . . .	1	28	28.0	17
Jehol . . . . .	2	76	38.0	14
Suiyuan . . . . .	—	—	—	
Chahar . . . . .	1	21	21.0	18
<b>TOTAL . . . . .</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>5,569</b>	<b>46.8</b>	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER  
AND OFFICER IN NORMAL INSTITUTES

TABLE III.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	29	260	9.0	13
Chihli . . . .	129	1,364	10.6	9
Fengtien . . .	35	507	14.5	2
Kirin . . . .	—	—	—	—
Heilungkiang .	4	110	27.5	1
Shantung . .	73	1,053	14.4	3
Honan . . . .	36	438	12.2	5
Shansi . . . .	10	53	5.3	16
Kiangsu . . . .	64	413	6.5	15
Anhwei . . . .	20	219	11.0	7
Kiangsi . . . .	—	—	—	—
Fukien . . . .	26	90	3.5	17
Chekiang . . .	9	59	6.6	14
Hupeh . . . .	—	—	—	—
Hunan . . . .	29	413	14.2	4
Shensi . . . .	—	—	—	—
Kansu . . . .	—	—	—	—
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . .	19	177	9.3	12
Kwangtung . .	22	230	10.5	10
Kwangsi . . . .	—	—	—	—
Yünnan . . . .	5	58	11.6	6
Kweichow . . .	3	28	9.3	11
Jehol . . . . .	7	76	10.9	8
Suiyuan . . . .	—	—	—	—
Chahar . . . .	6	21	3.5	18
<b>TOTAL . . .</b>	<b>526</b>	<b>5,569</b>	<b>10.6</b>	

PER STUDENT COST OF NORMAL INSTITUTES

TABLE III.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Expendi- ture \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Student Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	260	8,362	32.16	8
Chihli . . . .	1,364	52,501	38.49	5
Fengtien . . .	507	14,914	29.42	9
Kirin . . . .	—	—	—	—
Heilungkiang .	110	4,200	38.18	6
Shantung . . .	1,053	28,421	26.99	11
Honan . . . .	438	10,682	24.39	12
Shansi . . . .	53	—	—	—
Kiangsu . . . .	413	19,838	48.03	2
Anhwei . . . .	219	6,118	27.94	10
Kiangsi . . . .	—	—	—	—
Fukien . . . .	90	4,692	52.13	1
Chekiang . . .	59	897	15.20	15
Hupeh . . . .	—	—	—	—
Hunan . . . .	413	16,433	39.79	4
Shensi . . . .	—	—	—	—
Kansu . . . .	—	—	—	—
Sinkiang . . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . .	177	4,221	23.85	13
Kwangtung . .	230	3,800	16.52	14
Kwangsi . . . .	—	—	—	—
Yünnan . . . .	58	595	10.26	17
Kweichow . . .	28	400	14.29	16
Jehol . . . .	76	2,720	35.79	7
Suiyuan . . . .	—	—	—	—
Chahar . . . .	21	860	40.95	3
TOTAL . . . .	5,569	179,654	32.26	

## PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN NORMAL INSTITUTES

TABLE III.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District	260	—	260	0.00	—
Chihli . . .	1,107	257	1,364	18.84	4
Fengtien . .	464	43	507	8.48	5
Kirin . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Heilungkiang .	70	40	110	36.36	1
Shantung . .	1,053	—	1,053	0.00	—
Honan . . .	438	—	438	0.00	—
Shansi . . .	53	—	53	0.00	—
Kiangsu . . .	413	—	413	0.00	—
Anhwei . . .	219	—	219	0.00	—
Kiangsi . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Fukien . . .	62	28	90	31.11	2
Chekiang . .	41	18	59	30.51	3
Hupei . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Hunan . . .	413	—	413	0.00	—
Shensi . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Kansu . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Sinkiang . .	—	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . .	164	13	177	7.34	6
Kwangtung . .	230	—	230	0.00	—
Kwangsi . . .	—	—	—	0.00	—
Yünnan . . .	58	—	58	0.00	—
Kweichow . .	28	—	28	0.00	—
Jehol . . .	76	—	76	0.00	—
Suiyuan . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Chahar . . .	21	—	21	0.00	—
TOTAL . . .	5,170	399	5,569	7.16	—

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER MIDDLE SCHOOL

TABLE III<sub>10</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	33	5,469	165.7	12
Chihli . . . . .	29	7,480	257.9	3
Fengtien . . . . .	24	3,712	154.7	16
Kirin . . . . .	7	960	137.1	21
Heilungkiang . .	6	629	104.8	22
Shantung . . . .	24	6,291	262.1	2
Honan . . . . .	19	3,036	159.8	14
Shansi . . . . .	27	6,910	255.9	4
Kiangsu . . . . .	37	9,216	249.1	5
Anhwei . . . . .	13	1,938	149.1	19
Kiangsi . . . . .	20	4,165	208.3	8
Fukien . . . . .	22	3,773	171.5	11
Chekiang . . . . .	24	5,131	213.8	6
Hupeh . . . . .	26	5,524	212.5	7
Hunan . . . . .	47	8,953	190.5	10
Shensi . . . . .	9	1,829	203.2	9
Kansu . . . . .	5	777	155.4	15
Sinkiang . . . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . . . .	59	9,581	162.4	13
Kwangtung . . . .	59	9,107	154.4	17
Kwangsi . . . . .	26	3,921	150.8	18
Yünnan . . . . .	21	2,940	140.0	20
Kweichow . . . . .	6	1,664	277.3	1
Jehol . . . . .	2	178	89.0	25
Suiyuan . . . . .	1	102	102.0	23
Chahar . . . . .	1	99	99.0	24
<b>TOTAL . . . . .</b>	<b>547</b>	<b>103,385</b>	<b>189.0</b>	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER  
AND OFFICER IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS

TABLE III,

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	675	5,469	8.1	23
Chihli . . . .	620	7,480	12.1	6
Fengtien . . .	238	3,712	15.6	2
Kirin . . . . .	98	960	9.8	14
Heilungkiang . .	50	629	12.6	5
Shantung . . .	423	6,291	14.9	3
Honan . . . . .	300	3,036	10.1	12
Shansi . . . . .	465	6,910	14.9	4
Kiangsu . . . .	1,038	9,216	8.9	19
Anhwei . . . . .	235	1,938	8.2	22
Kiangsi . . . . .	410	4,165	10.2	11
Fukien . . . . .	452	3,773	8.3	21
Chekiang . . . .	575	5,131	8.9	20
Hupei . . . . .	458	5,524	12.1	7
Hunan . . . . .	947	8,953	9.5	15
Shensi . . . . .	166	1,829	11.0	13
Kansu . . . . .	69	777	11.3	10
Sinkiang . . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . . .	1,024	9,581	9.4	16
Kwangtung . . .	254	9,107	35.9	1
Kwangsi . . . . .	344	3,921	11.4	9
Yünnan . . . . .	316	2,940	9.3	17
Kweichow . . . .	139	1,664	12.0	8
Jehol . . . . .	27	178	6.6	25
Suiyuan . . . . .	15	102	6.8	24
Chahar . . . . .	11	99	9.0	18
<b>TOTAL . . . .</b>	<b>9,349</b>	<b>103,385</b>	<b>11.1</b>	

## PER STUDENT COST OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS

TABLE III<sub>12</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Expenditure \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Stu- dent Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	5,469	1,018,464	186.22	1
Chihli . . . .	7,480	569,576	76.15	9
Fengtien . . .	3,712	221,201	59.59	15
Kirin . . . .	960	104,921	109.29	3
Heilungkiang . .	629	77,204	122.74	2
Shantung . . .	6,291	227,157	36.11	24
Honan . . . .	3,036	224,362	73.90	10
Shansi . . . .	6,910	277,346	40.14	23
Kiangsu . . . .	9,216	735,732	79.83	8
Anhwei . . . .	1,938	191,530	98.83	6
Kiangsi . . . .	4,165	193,944	46.57	20
Fukien . . . .	3,773	240,723	63.80	13
Chekiang . . . .	5,131	313,865	61.17	14
Hupeh . . . .	5,524	356,907	64.61	12
Hunan . . . .	8,953	374,722	41.85	22
Shensi . . . .	1,829	100,204	54.79	17
Kansu . . . .	777	52,069	66.94	11
Sinkiang . . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . . .	9,581	416,064	43.43	21
Kwangtung . . .	9,107	448,374	49.23	19
Kwangsi . . . .	3,921	221,687	56.54	16
Yünnan . . . .	2,940	155,137	52.77	18
Kweichow . . . .	1,664	40,215	24.17	25
Jehol . . . .	178	17,574	98.73	7
Suiyuan . . . .	102	10,600	103.92	5
Chahar . . . .	99	10,738	108.46	4
<b>TOTAL . . . .</b>	<b>103,385</b>	<b>6,600,256</b>	<b>63.84</b>	



## PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS

TABLE III.<sub>1,2</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District	4,646	823	5,469	15.05	1
Chihli . . .	7,434	46	7,480	0.61	13
Fengtien . .	3,558	154	3,712	4.15	6
Kirin . . . .	960	—	960	0.00	—
Heilungkiang .	594	35	629	5.56	3
Shantung . .	6,199	92	6,291	1.46	10
Honan . . . .	3,036	—	3,036	0.00	—
Shansi . . . .	6,910	—	6,910	0.00	—
Kiangsu . . .	8,263	953	9,216	10.34	2
Anhwei . . . .	1,920	18	1,938	0.93	12
Kiangsi . . .	4,165	—	4,165	0.00	—
Fukien . . . .	3,662	111	3,773	2.94	8
Chekiang . . .	5,011	120	5,131	2.34	9
Hupeh . . . .	5,338	186	5,524	3.37	7
Hunan . . . .	8,867	86	8,953	0.96	11
Shensi . . . .	1,829	—	1,829	0.00	—
Kansu . . . .	777	—	777	0.00	—
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . .	9,581	—	9,581	0.00	—
Kwangtung . .	8,639	468	9,107	5.14	5
Kwangsi . . .	3,921	—	3,921	0.00	—
Yünnan . . . .	2,783	157	2,940	5.34	4
Kweichow . . .	1,664	—	1,664	0.00	—
Jehol . . . . .	178	—	178	0.00	—
Suiyuan . . . .	102	—	102	0.00	—
Chahar . . . .	99	—	99	0.00	—
<b>TOTAL . . .</b>	<b>100,136</b>	<b>3,249</b>	<b>103,385</b>	<b>3.14</b>	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER SECONDARY  
VOCATIONAL SCHOOL

TABLE III.,

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	19	1,100	57.9	22
Chihli . . . .	7	782	111.7	13
Fengtien . . .	4	765	191.3	2
Kirin . . . .	3	166	55.3	23
Heilungkiang .	2	228	114.0	12
Shantung . . .	14	1,436	102.6	16
Honan . . . .	15	1,792	119.5	11
Shansi . . . .	7	1,177	168.1	3
Kiangsu . . . .	14	2,809	200.6	1
Anhwei . . . .	9	1,411	156.8	5
Kiangsi . . . .	10	1,058	105.8	14
Fukien . . . .	9	951	105.7	15
Chekiang . . .	12	1,774	147.8	8
Hupeh . . . .	6	970	161.7	4
Hunan . . . .	13	1,853	142.5	9
Shensi . . . .	3	426	142.0	10
Kansu . . . .	1	87	87.0	18
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . .	5	401	80.2	19
Kwangtung . .	4	301	75.3	21
Kwangsi . . . .	2	192	96.0	17
Yünnan . . . .	2	297	148.5	7
Kweichow . . .	2	306	153.0	6
Jehol . . . .	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . . .	1	78	78.0	20
Chahar . . . .	—	—	—	—
<b>TOTAL . . . .</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>20,360</b>	<b>124.1</b>	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER AND  
OFFICER IN SECONDARY VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

TABLE III.<sub>15</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	215	1,100	5.1	17
Chihli . . . .	118	782	6.6	9
Fengtien . . .	64	765	12.0	1
Kirin . . . .	55	166	3.0	23
Heilungkiang .	24	228	9.5	4
Shantung . . .	218	1,436	6.6	10
Honan . . . .	186	1,792	9.6	3
Shansi . . . .	149	1,177	7.9	5
Kiangsu . . . .	503	2,809	5.6	14
Anhwei . . . .	196	1,411	7.2	6
Kiangsi . . . .	160	1,058	6.6	11
Fukien . . . .	201	951	4.7	19
Chekiang . . .	371	1,774	4.8	18
Hupeh . . . .	162	970	6.0	12
Hunan . . . .	320	1,853	5.8	13
Shensi . . . .	62	426	6.9	8
Kansu . . . .	19	87	4.6	20
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	
Szechwan . . .	120	401	3.3	22
Kwangtung . .	57	301	5.3	16
Kwangsi . . . .	35	192	5.5	15
Yünnan . . . .	77	297	3.9	21
Kweichow . . .	26	306	11.8	2
Jehol . . . .	—	—	—	
Suiyuan . . . .	11	78	7.1	7
Chahar . . . .	—	—	—	
<b>TOTAL . . .</b>	<b>3,349</b>	<b>20,360</b>	<b>6.1</b>	

## PER STUDENT COST OF SECONDARY VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

 TABLE III<sub>13</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Expenditure \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Stu- dent Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District . . . . .	1,100	70,393	63.99	21
Chihli . . . . .	782	131,106	167.65	9
Fengtien . . . . .	765	83,575	109.25	12
Kirin . . . . .	166	31,900	192.17	5
Heilungkiang . . . . .	228	22,503	98.70	16
Shantung . . . . .	1,436	174,003	121.17	11
Honan . . . . .	1,792	116,985	65.28	20
Shansi . . . . .	1,177	100,918	85.74	17
Kiangsu . . . . .	2,809	579,733	206.38	3
Anhwei . . . . .	1,411	246,858	174.95	7
Kiangsi . . . . .	1,058	89,846	84.92	18
Fukien . . . . .	951	101,798	107.04	13
Chekiang . . . . .	1,774	315,446	177.82	6
Hupei . . . . .	970	73,972	76.26	19
Hunan . . . . .	1,853	384,448	207.47	2
Shensi . . . . .	426	44,500	104.46	14
Kansu . . . . .	87	21,100	242.53	1
Sinkiang . . . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . . . .	401	69,368	172.99	8
Kwangtung . . . . .	301	31,077	103.25	15
Kwangsi . . . . .	192	38,790	202.03	4
Yünnan . . . . .	297	42,446	142.92	10
Kweichow . . . . .	306	17,800	58.17	22
Jehol . . . . .	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . . . .	78	1,440	18.46	23
Chahar . . . . .	—	—	—	—
TOTAL . . . . .	20,360	2,790,005	137.03	

## PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN SECONDARY VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

TABLE III,<sub>7</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District	483	617	1,100	56.09	1
Chihli . . .	782	—	782	—	—
Fengtien . .	765	—	765	—	—
Kirin . . .	166	—	166	—	—
Heilungkiang .	228	—	228	—	—
Shantung . .	1,356	80	1,436	5.57	6
Honan . . .	1,792	—	1,792	—	—
Shansi . . .	1,177	—	1,177	—	—
Kiangsu . . .	2,472	337	2,809	12.00	3
Anhwei . . .	1,411	—	1,411	—	—
Kiangsi . . .	935	123	1,058	11.63	4
Fukien . . .	951	—	951	—	—
Chekiang . . .	1,639	135	1,774	7.61	5
Hupei . . .	810	160	970	16.49	2
Hunan . . .	1,853	—	1,853	—	—
Shensi . . .	426	—	426	—	—
Kansu . . .	87	—	87	—	—
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . .	401	—	401	—	—
Kwangtung . .	301	—	301	—	—
Kwangsi . . .	192	—	192	—	—
Yünnan . . .	297	—	297	—	—
Kweichow . . .	306	—	306	—	—
Jehol . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . .	78	—	78	—	—
Chahar . . .	—	—	—	—	—
<b>TOTAL . . .</b>	<b>18,908</b>	<b>1,452</b>	<b>20,360</b>	<b>7.13</b>	

DISTRIBUTION OF PROTESTANT MISSIONARY MIDDLE  
SCHOOL STUDENTS

 TABLE III<sub>18</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special District</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>
Peking District	1,660	293	1,953	15.00
Chihli . .				
Fengtien .	507	14	521	2.69
Kirin . .				
Heilung- kiang .				
Shantung .	1,045	444	1,489	29.81
Honan . .	240	35	275	12.72
Shansi . .	209	58	267	21.72
Kiangsu . .	2,705	618	3,323	18.59
Anhwei . .	251	19	270	7.04
Kiangsi . .	153	113	266	42.48
Fukien . .	1,291	219	1,510	14.50
Chekiang .	792	182	974	18.68
Hupei . .	734	118	852	13.85
Hunan . .	533	126	659	19.12
Shensi . .	23	—	23	9.71
Kansu . .	—	—	—	—
Sinkiang .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan .	790	85	875	12.23
Kwangtung	1,693	236	1,929	52.94
Kwangsi . .	8	9	17	—
Yünnan . .	10	—	10	—
Kweichow .	—	—	—	—
<b>TOTAL .</b>	<b>12,644</b>	<b>2,569</b>	<b>15,213</b>	<b>16.89</b>

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PERCENTAGE OF ELEMENTARY STUDENTS TO TOTAL  
POPULATION

( Among the Special Districts only Peking included )  
( Government, Private, and Protestant Students combined )

TABLE IV.

<i>Province and Special Districts</i>	<i>Estimated Population</i>	<i>Total Number Elementary Students</i>	<i>Percentage of Elementary Stu- dents to Total Population</i>
Peking District	4,071,423	89,958	2.21
Chihli . . .	23,241,250	561,931	2.42
Fengtien . . .	19,998,989	441,594	2.21
Kirin . . .			
Heilungkiang .			
Shantung . .	30,955,307	790,558	2.55
Honan . . .	32,547,366	289,421	0.89
Shansi . . .	10,891,878	784,935	7.20
Kiangsu . . .	33,678,611	403,770	1.19
Anhwei . . .	20,002,166	97,340	0.49
Kiangsi . . .	24,490,687	213,709	0.87
Fukien . . .	17,067,277	175,663	1.03
Chekiang . .	22,909,822	421,024	1.84
Hupei . . .	28,574,322	216,843	0.76
Hunan . . .	29,519,272	322,859	1.09
Shensi . . .	9,087,288	209,643	2.31
Kansu . . .	6,083,565	114,478	1.88
Sinkiang . .	1,750,000	3,608	0.21
Szechwan . .	61,444,699	592,939	0.97
Kwangtung .	35,195,036	400,292	1.14
Kwangsi . .	10,872,300	185,233	1.70
Yünnan . . .	8,824,479	181,611	2.06
Kweichow . .	11,470,099	67,157	0.59



# STATISTICAL SUMMARIES OF CHINESE EDUCATION

## PER CAPITA POPULATION COST OF ELEMENTARY STUDENTS COMPARED

*(Among the Special Districts only Peking included)*

*(Missionary Students and Expenditure not included)*

TABLE IV.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>Total Expenditure Government and Private Elementary Students \$ (Mer.)</i>	<i>Per Capita Cost \$ (Mer.)</i>
Peking District .	4,071,423	488,767	.12
Chihli . . . .	23,241,250	2,587,114	.11
Fengtien . . .	19,998,989	2,059,992	3,367,956
Kirin . . . .		834,508	
Heilungkiang .		473,456	
Shantung . . .	30,955,307	2,243,926	.07
Honan . . . .	32,547,366	835,144	.04
Shansi . . . .	10,891,878	2,074,698	.19
Kiangsu . . . .	33,678,611	3,261,776	.10
Anhwei . . . .	20,002,166	805,711	.04
Kiangsi . . . .	24,490,687	1,038,860	.04
Fukien . . . .	17,067,277	1,248,149	.07
Chekiang . . . .	22,909,822	1,935,275	.08
Hupeh . . . .	28,574,322	721,481	.03
Hunan . . . .	29,519,272	1,831,930	.06
Shensi . . . .	9,087,288	726,162	.08
Kansu . . . .	6,083,565	258,230	.04
Sinkiang . . . .	1,750,000	81,492	.05
Szechwan . . . .	61,444,699	2,035,229	.03
Kwangtung . . .	35,195,036	3,052,648	.09
Kwangsi . . . .	10,872,300	928,895	.08
Yünnan . . . .	8,824,479	723,186	.08
Kweichow . . . .	11,470,099	325,884	.03

DISTRIBUTION OF GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE  
 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

(Missionary School Students not included)

 TABLE IV<sub>3</sub>

Provinces and Special Districts	No. Lower Primary School Students	No. Higher Primary School Students	No. Elemen- tary Voca- tional School Students	Total
Peking Dis- trict . . .	79,220	5,568	232	85,020
Chihli . . .	519,679	34,824	624	555,127
Fengtien . . .	293,151	27,380	541	321,272
Kirin . . .	55,419	6,562	—	61,981
Heilungkiang	46,190	4,797	476	51,463
Shantung . .	728,047	38,439	4,207	770,693
Honan . . .	257,139	22,548	2,902	282,589
Shansi . . .	738,194	40,529	2,239	780,962
Kiangsu . . .	343,143	40,956	3,106	387,205
Anhwei . . .	73,447	18,170	389	92,006
Kiangsi . . .	185,855	22,765	293	208,913
Fukien . . .	119,048	25,796	639	145,483
Chekiang . . .	373,926	36,366	1,114	411,406
Hupeh . . .	190,162	15,788	659	206,609
Hunan . . .	279,729	34,087	1,017	314,833
Shensi . . .	188,959	17,815	646	207,420
Kansu . . .	101,810	12,099	83	113,992
Sinkiang . . .	3,066	468	—	3,534
Szechwan . . .	524,925	50,115	110	575,150
Kwangtung . .	311,944	64,473	308	376,725
Kwangsi . . .	159,054	24,683	—	183,737
Yunnan . . .	155,260	23,569	776	179,605
Kweichow . . .	53,357	11,896	106	65,359
Jehol . . .	15,421	1,501	—	16,922
Suiyuan . . .	7,943	435	—	8,378
Chahar . . .	10,287	850	—	11,137
TOTAL . . .	5,814,375	582,479	20,467	6,417,321

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER LOWER  
PRIMARY SCHOOL

TABLE IV<sub>4</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District . . . . .	2,639	79,220	30.0	22
Chihli . . . . .	17,234	519,679	30.2	21
Fengtien . . . . .	7,292	293,151	40.2	8
Kirin . . . . .	1,146	55,419	48.4	4
Heilungkiang . . . . .	1,368	46,190	33.8	15
Shantung . . . . .	22,492	728,047	32.4	17
Honan . . . . .	8,489	257,139	30.3	20
Shansi . . . . .	20,428	738,194	36.1	11
Kiangsu . . . . .	6,715	343,143	51.1	3
Anhwei . . . . .	2,156	73,447	34.1	14
Kiangsi . . . . .	5,649	185,855	36.8	9
Fukien . . . . .	2,297	119,048	51.8	2
Chekiang . . . . .	8,853	373,926	42.2	7
Hupeh . . . . .	7,223	190,162	26.3	25
Hunan . . . . .	9,039	279,729	30.9	19
Shensi . . . . .	6,707	188,959	28.2	26
Kansu . . . . .	2,192	101,810	46.4	5
Sinkiang . . . . .	84	3,066	36.5	10
Szechwan . . . . .	16,476	524,925	31.9	18
Kwangtung . . . . .	7,255	311,944	43.0	6
Kwangsi . . . . .	4,577	159,054	34.8	13
Yünnan . . . . .	4,740	155,260	32.8	16
Kweichow . . . . .	1,515	53,357	35.2	12
Jehol . . . . .	628	15,421	24.6	25
Suiyuan . . . . .	297	7,943	26.7	24
Chahar . . . . .	185	10,287	55.6	1
<b>TOTAL . . . . .</b>	<b>167,076</b>	<b>5,814,375</b>	<b>34.8</b>	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER AND  
 OFFICER IN LOWER PRIMARY SCHOOLS

TABLE IV.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	3,107	79,220	25.5	13
Chihli . . . .	18,412	519,679	28.2	8
Fengtien . . .	8,615	293,151	34.0	4
Kirin . . . .	1,509	55,419	36.7	3
Heilungkiang .	1,568	46,190	29.5	6
Shantung . .	24,955	728,047	29.2	7
Honan . . . .	9,902	257,139	26.0	12
Shansi . . . .	23,923	738,194	30.8	5
Kiangsu . . .	14,077	343,143	24.4	15
Anhwei . . . .	4,056	73,447	18.1	25
Kiangsi . . . .	8,132	185,855	22.8	19
Fukien . . . .	6,637	119,048	17.9	26
Chekiang . . .	16,385	373,926	22.8	18
Hupei . . . .	8,515	190,162	22.3	22
Hunan . . . .	12,837	279,729	21.8	23
Shensi . . . .	8,188	188,959	23.1	17
Kansu . . . .	2,424	101,810	42.0	2
Sinkiang . . .	115	3,066	26.7	10
Szechwan . . .	19,845	524,961	26.4	11
Kwangtung . .	13,684	311,944	22.8	20
Kwangsi . . . .	6,644	159,054	23.9	16
Yünnan . . . .	5,602	155,260	27.7	9
Kweichow . . .	2,937	53,357	18.2	24
Jehol . . . .	686	15,421	22.5	21
Suiyuan . . . .	324	7,943	24.5	14
Chahar . . . .	200	10,287	51.4	1
TOTAL . . . .	223,279	5,814,375	26.0	

## PER STUDENT COST OF LOWER PRIMARY SCHOOLS

TABLE IV.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Expendi- ture \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Student Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	79,220	414,877	5.24	10
Chihli . . . .	519,679	1,784,259	3.43	18
Fengtien . . .	293,151	1,619,838	5.53	8
Kirin . . . .	55,419	630,682	11.38	2
Heilungkiang .	46,190	332,025	6.97	4
Shantung . . .	728,047	1,724,604	2.37	21
Honan . . . .	257,139	509,628	1.98	26
Shansi . . . .	738,194	1,589,544	2.15	24
Kiangsu . . . .	343,143	2,196,469	6.40	5
Anhwei . . . .	73,447	433,468	5.90	7
Kiangsi . . . .	185,855	638,831	3.44	17
Fukien . . . .	119,048	748,408	6.29	6
Chekiang . . .	373,926	1,339,799	3.58	16
Hupeh . . . .	190,162	447,408	2.35	20
Hunan . . . .	279,729	1,318,575	4.71	11
Shensi . . . .	188,959	419,731	2.22	23
Kansu . . . .	101,810	148,980	1.46	25
Sinkiang . . . .	3,066	64,829	21.14	1
Szechwan . . .	524,925	1,220,100	2.32	22
Kwangtung . .	311,944	1,743,509	5.59	9
Kwangsi . . . .	159,054	569,818	3.58	15
Yünnan . . . .	155,260	482,443	3.11	19
Kweichow . . .	53,357	198,770	3.73	14
Jehol . . . .	15,421	110,392	7.16	3
Suiyuan . . . .	7,943	38,096	4.80	12
Chahar . . . .	10,287	44,679	4.34	13
<b>TOTAL . . . .</b>	<b>5,814,375</b>	<b>20,759,762</b>	<b>3.57</b>	

PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL NUMBER OF  
STUDENTS IN LOWER PRIMARY SCHOOLS

 TABLE IV<sub>7</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District	75,048	4,172	79,220	5.27	11
Chihli . . .	497,414	22,265	519,679	4.28	14
Fengtien . .	275,703	17,448	293,151	5.95	9
Kirin . . . .	51,262	4,157	55,419	7.50	5
Heilungkiang .	42,029	4,161	46,190	9.01	3
Shantung . .	712,250	15,797	728,047	2.17	23
Honan . . . .	250,617	6,522	257,139	2.54	22
Shansi . . . .	608,305	129,889	738,194	17.60	1
Kiangsu . . .	307,124	36,019	343,143	10.50	2
Anhwei . . . .	69,056	4,391	73,447	5.98	8
Kiangsi . . .	180,260	5,595	185,855	3.01	20
Fukien . . . .	115,335	3,713	119,048	3.12	19
Chekiang . . .	354,145	19,781	373,926	6.09	7
Hupeh . . . .	183,542	6,620	190,162	3.48	18
Hunan . . . .	256,924	22,805	279,729	8.15	4
Shensi . . . .	185,415	3,544	188,959	1.87	24
Kansu . . . .	99,978	1,832	101,810	1.79	26
Sinkiang . . .	2,980	86	3,066	2.78	21
Szechwan . . .	495,716	29,209	524,925	5.56	10
Kwangtung . .	300,101	11,843	311,944	3.79	16
Kwangsi . . .	152,325	6,729	159,054	4.23	15
Yünnan . . . .	147,494	7,766	155,260	5.00	13
Kweichow . . .	50,629	2,728	53,357	5.11	12
Jehol . . . .	14,448	973	15,421	6.31	6
Suiyuan . . . .	7,799	144	7,943	1.81	25
Chahar . . . .	9,916	371	10,287	3.61	17
<b>TOTAL . . .</b>	<b>5,445,815</b>	<b>368,560</b>	<b>5,814,375</b>	<b>6.34</b>	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER HIGHER  
PRIMARY SCHOOL

TABLE IV<sub>8</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	155	5,568	35.9	25
Chihli . . . .	531	34,824	65.6	6
Fengtien . . .	400	27,380	68.5	4
Kirin . . . .	108	6,562	60.8	11
Heilungkiang .	78	4,797	61.5	10
Shantung . . .	675	38,439	56.9	12
Honan . . . .	365	22,548	61.8	9
Shansi . . . .	450	40,529	90.1	1
Kiangsu . . . .	550	40,956	74.5	3
Anhwei . . . .	359	18,170	50.6	16
Kiangsi . . . .	455	22,765	50.0	17
Fukien . . . .	706	25,796	36.5	24
Chekiang . . .	741	36,366	49.1	18
Hupeh . . . .	234	15,788	67.5	5
Hunan . . . .	532	34,087	64.1	8
Shensi . . . .	221	17,815	80.6	2
Kansu . . . .	215	12,099	56.3	13
Sinkiang . . . .	18	468	26.0	26
Szechwan . . .	952	50,115	52.6	15
Kwangtung . .	1,349	64,473	47.8	20
Kwangsi . . . .	466	24,683	53.0	14
Yünnan . . . .	367	23,569	64.2	7
Kweichow . . .	246	11,896	48.4	19
Jehol . . . .	34	1,501	44.1	22
Suiyuan . . . .	10	435	43.5	23
Chahar . . . .	19	850	44.7	21
<b>TOTAL . . . .</b>	<b>10,236</b>	<b>582,479</b>	<b>56.9</b>	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER AND  
 OFFICER IN HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS

TABLE IV.

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	145	5,568	38.4	1
Chihli . . . .	1,517	34,824	23.0	3
Fengtien . .	1,163	27,380	23.5	2
Kirin . . . .	305	6,562	21.5	6
Heilungkiang .	260	4,797	18.5	10
Shantung . . .	2,007	38,439	19.2	8
Honan . . . .	1,201	22,548	18.8	9
Shansi . . . .	2,011	40,529	20.2	7
Kiangsu . . . .	3,263	40,956	12.6	22
Anhwei . . . .	1,405	18,170	12.9	21
Kiangsi . . . .	1,685	22,765	13.5	19
Fukien . . . .	3,064	25,796	8.4	26
Chekiang . . .	3,669	36,366	9.9	25
Hupeh . . . .	1,027	15,788	15.4	16
Hunan . . . .	2,324	34,087	14.7	17
Shensi . . . .	827	17,815	21.5	5
Kansu . . . .	723	12,099	16.7	13
Sinkiang . . .	28	468	16.7	12
Szechwan . . .	4,065	50,115	12.3	24
Kwangtung . .	4,633	64,473	13.9	18
Kwangsi . . . .	1,532	24,683	16.1	14
Yünnan . . . .	1,076	23,569	21.9	4
Kweichow . . .	949	11,896	12.5	23
Jehol . . . .	95	1,501	15.8	15
Suiyuan . . . .	24	435	18.1	11
Chahar . . . .	63	850	13.5	20
TOTAL . . . .	39,061	582,479	14.9	



## PER STUDENT COST OF HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS

TABLE IV<sub>10</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Annual Expenditure \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Student Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	5,568	73,890	13.27	22
Chihli . . . .	34,824	802,855	23.05	8
Fengtien . . .	27,380	440,154	16.08	17
Kirin . . . .	6,562	203,826	31.06	4
Heilungkiang .	4,797	151,431	31.57	3
Shantung . . .	38,439	519,322	13.51	21
Honan . . . .	22,548	325,516	14.44	20
Shansi . . . .	40,529	485,154	11.97	23
Kiangsu . . . .	40,965	1,065,307	26.00	6
Anhwei . . . .	18,170	372,243	20.49	9
Kiangsi . . . .	22,765	400,029	17.57	12
Fukien . . . .	25,796	499,741	19.37	11
Chekiang . . .	36,366	595,476	16.37	15
Hupeh . . . .	15,788	274,073	17.36	13
Hunan . . . .	34,087	513,355	15.06	18
Shensi . . . .	17,815	306,431	17.20	14
Kansu . . . .	12,099	109,250	9.03	26
Sinkiang . . .	468	16,663	35.60	1
Szechwan . . .	50,115	815,129	16.27	16
Kwangtung . .	64,473	1,309,139	20.30	10
Kwangsi . . . .	24,683	359,077	14.55	19
Yünnan . . . .	23,569	240,743	10.21	25
Kweichow . . .	11,896	127,114	10.69	24
Jehol . . . .	1,501	49,395	32.91	2
Suiyuan . . . .	435	10,760	24.74	7
Chahar . . . .	850	23,658	27.83	5
<b>TOTAL . . .</b>	<b>582,479</b>	<b>10,089,731</b>	<b>17.32</b>	

PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL NUMBER OF  
STUDENTS IN HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS

TABLE IV.,

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District	4,801	767	5,568	13.78	2
Chihli . . .	33,486	1,338	34,824	3.84	18
Fengtien . .	25,140	2,240	27,380	8.18	8
Kirin . . .	5,919	643	6,562	9.80	4
Heilungkiang .	4,028	769	4,797	16.03	1
Shantung . .	36,632	1,807	38,439	4.70	13
Honan . . .	21,512	1,036	22,548	4.59	15
Shansi . . .	37,737	2,792	40,529	6.89	10
Kiangsu . . .	35,373	5,583	40,956	13.63	3
Anhwei . . .	17,442	728	18,170	4.01	16
Kiangsi . . .	22,345	420	22,765	1.84	22
Fukien . . .	25,077	719	25,796	2.79	21
Chekiang . . .	33,519	2,847	36,366	7.83	9
Hupei . . .	14,417	1,371	15,788	8.68	6
Hunan . . .	32,518	1,569	34,087	4.60	14
Shensi . . .	16,346	1,469	17,815	8.25	7
Kansu . . .	12,011	88	12,099	0.73	24
Sinkiang . . .	468	—	468	0.00	—
Szechwan . .	45,431	4,684	50,115	9.35	5
Kwangtung . .	62,220	2,253	64,473	3.49	20
Kwangsi . . .	23,811	872	24,683	3.53	19
Yünnan . . .	22,654	915	23,569	3.88	17
Kweichow . .	11,765	131	11,896	1.10	23
Jehol . . .	1,402	99	1,501	6.60	11
Suiyuan . . .	435	—	435	0.00	—
Chahar . . .	808	42	850	4.94	12
TOTAL . . .	547,297	35,182	582,479	6.04	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER ELEMENTARY  
VOCATIONAL SCHOOLTABLE IV<sub>12</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Schools</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per School</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	8	232	29.0	18
Chihli . . . .	11	624	56.7	5
Fengtien . . .	11	541	49.2	10
Kirin . . . .	—	—	—	
Heilungkiang .	10	476	47.6	12
Shantung . .	85	4,207	49.5	9
Honan . . . .	62	2,902	46.8	13
Shansi . . . .	49	2,239	45.7	15
Kiangsu . . . .	41	3,106	75.8	3
Anhwei . . . .	7	389	55.6	6
Kiangsi . . . .	5	293	58.6	4
Fukien . . . .	6	639	106.5	1
Chekiang . . .	24	1,114	46.4	14
Hupeh . . . .	32	659	20.6	20
Hunan . . . .	21	1,017	48.4	11
Shensi . . . .	21	646	30.8	17
Kansu . . . .	1	83	83.0	2
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	
Szechwan . . .	3	110	36.7	16
Kwangtung . .	6	308	51.3	8
Kwangsi . . . .	—	—	—	
Yünnan . . . .	34	776	22.8	19
Kweichow . . .	2	106	53.00	7
Jehol . . . .	—	—	—	
Suiyuan . . . .	—	—	—	
Chahar . . . .	—	—	—	
<b>TOTAL . .</b>	<b>439</b>	<b>20,467</b>	<b>46.6</b>	

AVERAGE NUMBER OF STUDENTS PER TEACHER AND OFFICER  
 IN ELEMENTARY VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

 TABLE IV<sub>13</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Teachers and Officers</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>No. Students per Teacher and Officer</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	27	232	8.6	8
Chihli . . . .	85	624	7.3	11
Fengtien . . .	40	541	13.5	2
Kirin . . . .	—	—	—	—
Heilungkiang .	35	476	13.6	1
Shantung . . .	400	4,207	10.5	4
Honan . . . .	297	2,902	9.8	6
Shansi . . . .	221	2,239	10.1	5
Kiangsu . . . .	404	3,106	7.7	10
Anhwei . . . .	45	389	8.6	7
Kiangsi . . . .	49	293	6.0	17
Fukien . . . .	103	639	6.2	14
Chekiang . . .	138	1,114	8.1	9
Hupeh . . . .	108	659	6.1	16
Hunan . . . .	208	1,017	4.9	19
Shensi . . . .	90	646	7.2	12
Kansu . . . .	7	83	11.9	3
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . .	31	110	3.5	20
Kwangtung . .	43	308	7.2	13
Kwangsi . . . .	—	—	—	—
Yünnan . . . .	126	776	6.2	15
Kweichow . . .	21	106	5.0	18
Jehol . . . .	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . . .	—	—	—	—
Chahar . . . .	—	—	—	—
<b>TOTAL . . . .</b>	<b>2,478</b>	<b>20,467</b>	<b>8.3</b>	

## PER STUDENT COST OF ELEMENTARY VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

TABLE IV<sub>14</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>	<i>Expenditure \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Per Stu- dent Cost \$ (Mex.)</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District .	232	8,304	35.79	9
Chihli . . . .	624	24,650	39.50	4
Fengtien . . .	541	17,233	31.85	11
Kirin . . . .	—	—	—	—
Heilungkiang .	476	17,688	37.16	8
Shantung . . .	4,207	117,825	28.01	13
Honan . . . .	2,902	58,429	20.13	17
Shansi . . . .	2,239	23,770	10.62	20
Kiangsu . . . .	3,106	143,931	46.34	3
Anhwei . . . .	389	7,084	18.21	18
Kiangsi . . . .	293	13,590	46.28	2
Fukien . . . .	639	14,817	23.19	16
Chekiang . . .	1,114	42,556	38.20	5
Hupeh . . . .	659	25,010	37.95	6
Hunan . . . .	1,017	37,917	37.28	7
Shensi . . . .	646	18,610	28.81	12
Kansu . . . .	83	2,023	25.10	15
Sinkiang . . .	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . . .	110	5,281	48.01	1
Kwangtung . .	308	8,062	26.18	14
Kwangsi . . . .	—	—	—	—
Yünnan . . . .	776	10,097	13.01	19
Kweichow . . .	106	3,533	33.23	10
Jehol . . . .	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . . .	—	—	—	—
Chahar . . . .	—	—	—	—
<b>TOTAL . . . .</b>	<b>20,467</b>	<b>600,470</b>	<b>29.34</b>	

PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE STUDENTS TO TOTAL NUMBER OF  
 STUDENTS IN ELEMENTARY VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

 TABLE IV<sub>15</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Peking District	232	—	232	—	—
Chihli . . .	624	—	624	—	—
Fengtien . .	515	26	541	4.81	7
Kirin . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Heilungkiang .	476	—	476	—	—
Shantung . .	4,149	58	4,207	1.38	9
Honan . . .	2,902	—	2,902	—	—
Shansi . . .	2,239	—	2,239	—	—
Kiangsu . . .	2,415	691	3,106	22.25	4
Anhwei . . .	389	—	389	—	—
Kiangsi . . .	189	104	293	35.49	2
Fukien . . .	349	290	639	45.38	1
Chekiang . .	1,022	92	1,114	8.26	6
Hupei . . .	539	120	659	18.21	5
Hunan . . .	667	350	1,017	34.41	3
Shensi . . .	620	26	646	4.02	8
Kansu . . .	83	—	83	—	—
Sinkiang . .	—	—	—	—	—
Szechwan . .	110	—	110	—	—
Kwangtung . .	308	—	308	—	—
Kwangsi . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Yünnan . . .	776	—	776	—	—
Kweichow . .	106	—	106	—	—
Jehol . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Suiyuan . . .	—	—	—	—	—
Chahar . . .	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL . . .	18,710	1,757	20,467	8.58	

DISTRIBUTION OF PROTESTANT MISSIONARY HIGHER  
PRIMARY STUDENTS

TABLE IV<sub>16</sub>

<i>Provinces and Special District</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>
Peking District	2,480	708	3,188	22.20
Chihli . .	585	308	893	34.49
Fengtien .	1,872	910	2,782	32.71
Kirin . .				
Heilung- kiang }				
Shantung .	757	225	982	22.91
Honan .	382	123	505	24.75
Shansi .	3,586	1,429	5,015	28.49
Kiangsu .	768	248	1,016	24.41
Anhwei .	773	209	982	21.22
Kiangsi .	3,284	1,328	4,612	28.79
Fukien .	1,147	599	1,746	34.31
Chekiang .	1,338	847	2,185	38.76
Hupeh . .	1,331	263	1,594	16.49
Hunan .	227	47	274	17.15
Shensi . .	36	27	63	42.85
Kansu .	1,306	529	1,835	28.80
Sinkiang .	3,086	1,424	4,510	31.57
Szechwan .	129	105	234	44.87
Kwangtung	179	45	224	20.09
Kwangsi .	187	2	189	1.06
Yünnan .	37	33	70	47.14
Kweichow	0	0	0	0
TOTAL .	23,490	9,409	32,899	28.60

DISTRIBUTION OF PROTESTANT MISSIONARY LOWER  
PRIMARY STUDENTS

 TABLE IV<sub>17</sub>

<i>Provinces and Territories</i>	<i>No. Male Students</i>	<i>No. Female Students</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage of Female Students</i>
Chihli . . . . .	5,418	3,136	8,554	36.66
Peking District . . . . .				
Fengtien . . . . .	3,584	2,601	6,185	42.05
Kirin . . . . .				
Heilungkiang . . . . .				
Shantung . . . . .	13,196	3,887	17,083	22.75
Honan . . . . .	4,096	1,754	5,850	29.98
Shansi . . . . .	2,779	689	3,468	19.86
Kiangsu . . . . .	7,483	4,067	11,550	35.21
Anhwei . . . . .	2,998	1,320	4,318	30.56
Kiangsi . . . . .	2,435	1,379	3,814	36.75
Fukien . . . . .	17,526	8,042	25,568	31.45
Chekiang . . . . .	5,579	2,293	7,872	29.13
Hupei . . . . .	5,085	2,964	8,049	36.82
Hunan . . . . .	4,325	2,107	6,432	32.75
Shensi . . . . .	1,536	413	1,949	27.19
Kansu . . . . .	330	93	423	21.99
Sinkiang . . . . .	56	18	74	24.32
Szechwan . . . . .	9,531	6,423	15,954	40.26
Kwangtung . . . . .	12,872	6,185	19,057	32.45
Kwangsi . . . . .	818	444	1,262	35.18
Yünnan . . . . .	1,640	142	1,782	7.97
Kweichow . . . . .	1,516	93	1,609	5.78
Mongolia . . . . .	429	300	729	41.15
Tibet . . . . .	0	0	0	0
TOTAL . . . . .	103,232	48,350	151,582	31.90



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DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS IN ROMAN  
CATHOLIC SCHOOLS

 TABLE V<sub>1</sub>

(1919-1920)

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>
Peking District } . . . . .	39,356
Chihli } . . . . .	
Fengtien } . . . . .	2,527
Kirin } . . . . .	
Heilungkiang } . . . . .	
Shantung . . . . .	1,895
Honan . . . . .	5,198
Shansi . . . . .	7,949
Kiangsu . . . . .	25,301
Anhwei . . . . .	7,279
Kiangsi . . . . .	4,205
Fukien . . . . .	4,855
Chekiang . . . . .	5,541
Hupei . . . . .	9,052
Hunan . . . . .	2,193
Shensi . . . . .	26
Kansu . . . . .	489
Sinkiang . . . . .	457
Szechwan . . . . .	7,969
Kwangtung . . . . .	2,068
Kwangsi . . . . .	22
Yunnan . . . . .	39
Kweichow . . . . .	168
Mongolia . . . . .	10,272
Tibet . . . . .	99
TOTAL . . . . .	136,960

## DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS IN Y. M. C. A. SCHOOLS

TABLE V<sub>2</sub>

(1921-1922)

<i>Provinces and Special Districts</i>	<i>No. Students</i>
Peking District } . . . . .	3,762
Chihli } . . . . .	
Fengtien } . . . . .	660
Kirin } . . . . .	
Heilungkiang } . . . . .	
Shantung . . . . .	692
Honan . . . . .	627
Shansi . . . . .	541
Kiangsu . . . . .	2,241
Anhwei . . . . .	158
Kiangsi . . . . .	482
Fukien . . . . .	1,554
Chekiang . . . . .	1,047
Hupei . . . . .	907
Hunan . . . . .	3,525
Shensi . . . . .	171
Kansu . . . . .	—
Sinkiang . . . . .	—
Szechwan . . . . .	1,480
Kwangtung . . . . .	1,828
Kwangsi . . . . .	—
Yünnan . . . . .	257
Kweichow . . . . .	—
Mongolia . . . . .	—
Tibet . . . . .	—
TOTAL . . . . .	20,292

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